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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HRM PRACTICES, LEADERSHIP STYLE,
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND INFORMAL WORKPLACE LEARNING



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ABSTRACT

Informal workplace learning is considered as one of the progressively important issues in the contemporary global business environment. Although informal workplace learning is an important issue, there is a lack of such learning in private commercial banks (PCBs) in Bangladesh. Based on the theory of situated learning which argues that organizational factors and personal factors influence workplace learning, the study aimed to examine the relationship between human resource management practices (HRM), leadership style and informal workplace learning. The study also considered the mediating effect of affective commitment on this relationship. A quantitative research technique was applied and a structured questionnaire was used as the research instrument. A cross sectional survey design was adopted and the unit of analysis was employees working as head of department in branches of PCBs. The study employed the probability sampling technique, with a sample size of 381. The Partial Least Squares to Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) approach was applied for analyzing the data. The findings suggest that HRM practices such as selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, empowerment, information sharing and leadership style such as transformational leadership style are the strong predictors of informal workplace learning. Employment security and promotion opportunities have no significant impact on informal workplace learning. In addition to that, affective commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices such as, extensive training, compensation practices, promotion opportunities, empowerment, information sharing and informal workplace learning. Similarly, affective commitment also mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning. Based on the empirical evidences, practitioners and policy makers should pay more attention to HRM practices and leadership style for enhancing informal workplace learning.

Key Words: HRM practices, leadership style, affective commitment, informal workplace learning, Bangladesh.

ABSTRAK

Pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja adalah satu isu yang menjadi semakin penting dalam persekitaran perniagaan global. Walaupun pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja adalah suatu perkara yang penting, namun masih lagi terdapat kekurangan pembelajaran sedemikian dalam bank komersil swasta di Bangladesh. Berdasarkan teori pembelajaran bertempat yang menghujahkan bahawa faktor organisasi dan peribadi mempengaruhi pembelajaran di tempat kerja, maka kajian ini dilaksanakan untuk menguji hubungan antara amalan pengurusan sumber manusia, gaya kepimpinan dan pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja. Kajian ini juga mempertimbangkan kesan perantaraan komitmen afektif ke atas hubungan ini. Kajian ini menggunakan teknik kuantitatif dan soal selidik berstruktur sebagai instrumen kajian. Reka bentuk kaji selidik keratan rentas telah digunakan dan unit analisis adalah pekerja yang bekerja sebagai ketua jabatan di cawangan-cawangan bank komersil swasta. Kajian ini menggunakan teknik persampelan rawak dengan saiz sampel sebanyak 381. Manakala pendekatan *Partial Least Squares* bagi *Structural Equation Modelling* diaplikasikan untuk menganalisis data. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa amalan pengurusan sumber manusia seperti pengambilan terpilih, latihan yang luas, penilaian prestasi, amalan imbuhan, pemberdayaan, perkongsian maklumat dan gaya kepimpinan seperti gaya kepimpinan transformasi adalah penentu utama dalam pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja. Jaminan pekerjaan dan peluang kenaikan pangkat tidak mempunyai kesan yang signifikan kepada pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja. Selain itu, komitmen afektif mengantara hubungan antara amalan pengurusan sumber manusia seperti latihan yang luas, amalan imbuhan, peluang kenaikan pangkat, pemberdayaan, perkongsian maklumat dan pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja. Di samping itu, komitmen afektif juga mengantara hubungan antara kepimpinan transaksi dan pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja. Berdasarkan bukti empirikal, pengamal dan penggubal dasar seharusnya memberi tumpuan yang lebih kepada amalan pengurusan sumber manusia dan gaya kepimpinan bagi meningkatkan pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja.

Kata kunci: Amalan pengurusan sumber manusia, gaya kepimpinan, komitmen afektif, pembelajaran tidak formal di tempat kerja, Bangladesh.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Affective Commitment
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BB	Bangladesh Bank
BIBM	Bangladesh Institute of Bank Management
CC	Continuance Commitment
CMV	Common Method Variance
CR	Composite Reliability
DOPU	Drop off and Pick Up Method
FCB	Foreign Commercial Bank
HOD	Head of the Department
HOM	Higher Order Model
HRM	Human Resource Management
ILO	International Labor Organization
IWPL	Informal Workplace Learning
TFL	Transformational Leadership
TL	Transactional Leadership
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
ML	Maximum Likelihood
NC	Normative Commitment
NGO	Non-government organization

OD	Omission Distance
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PCB	Private Commercial Bank
PLS	Partial Least Square
SCB	State-owned Commercial Bank
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In the modern world, organizations are not stable or static rather they are dynamic in nature. Many changes are occurring in the organizational structure, society, work, and work life due to the advent of globalization, information communication technology, and diversification of knowledge in various field. These changes instigate the organizations to improve the competency and knowledge level of their employees to meet their internal and external challenges. Workplace learning is identified as one of the contributing factors to organizational competitiveness that increases the knowledge and skills of employees. Therefore, it is essential to identify the factors that enhance employees' learning in workplace. The purpose of this chapter is to provide some basic information about this study. First and foremost, this chapter provides the background information relevant to this study. Subsequently, discusses the problem that instigates the need for current study. Thirdly, provides the questions and objectives of the research as well as discuss the significance of the current study. Finally, the definition of the study variables and the organization of the thesis are presented in detail.

1.2 Background of the Study

For the last twenty years the importance of workplace learning is gradually increasing because it provides an effective way of increasing knowledge and skills of employees in the workplace (Caudill, 2015; ILO, 2008). Workplace learning refers to the improvement of knowledge, skills and attitudes of employees needed for developing the quality of work in the workplace (Kyndt, Gijbels, Grosemans, & Donche, 2016). It is the process of acquiring, distributing and interpreting of knowledge and skill in the workplace. Moreover, workplace learning is the route through which knowledge can be generated, upgraded and skills are attained at the place of work (Avis, 2010; Cacciattolo, 2015).

Nowadays, workplace are using as a focal point of learning due to the growth of knowledge economy (Shohel, 2016). Firms and organizations recognize that employees learning is inevitable and a critical factor for their survival because learning enhances organizational capacity by developing potentials of employees (Caudill, 2015; Westbrook & Veale, 2001). Workplace learning improves the working capacity of employees which is required to improve organizational performance. Moreover, Russ-Eft, Watkins, Marsick, Jacobs, and McLean (2014) and Leicher and Mulder (2016) also stated that workplace learning is a key factor to increase the capacity of individuals and organizations to face the challenges of the rapid-changing environment. Indeed, for increasing employees' ability to response to the changes needs and demands of the organization learning in workplace is highly needed (Caudill, 2015; Ellström, 2001; Pantouvakis & Bouranta, 2013). In addition to that, in knowledge-based jobs, where

highly skilled labor and educated workforce are demanded workplace learning is considered as a way of maintaining affinity between organization and individual's competence (Ahlgren & Tett, 2010; Scheeres & Solomon, 2006; Solomon, 2001). Therefore, workplace learning emphasizes on employees' improvement which is related to organizational objectives and goals.

As a part of human resource development initiative International Labor Organization (ILO) overtly emphasize on improving workplace learning of employees in its member countries (ILO, 2004) . Almost all the countries of Asia and Pacific face the challenges to increase the skilled workforce in order to mitigate the pressure of wider competition as well as to adjust with global regulation and quality standard. For example, Malaysia encourages workplace learning by establishing fund for human resource development (ILO, 2008). As an initiative of learning in workplace, the Philippine government accredits Industry Working Groups (IWGs) through Technical Education and Skill Development Authority (TESDA). Similarly, Singapore accepts the Manpower Development Assistance Scheme (MDAS) in 2000 to give financial support for industry initiatives towards workplace learning. Besides, Brunei Darussalam has taken initiatives for workplace learning of employees of petroleum and gas sector through industry involvement in learning program (ILO, 2008). Therefore, almost all the countries of the world are giving emphasis on workplace learning for developing the competencies of their employees.

The socio-economic development of a country is significantly depends on development of its human resources where human resource can be developed through learning in workplace. Countries such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan, China, and Japan have achieved rapid development within a shortest period of time due to their developed manpower (Azad, 2015). The study of World Bank (1993) showed that investment in human resource development is one of the major factors for rapid socio-economic progress of East Asian region. Findings depicted that, the overall spending level to develop human resources are more important for better performance rather than spending on organizational structure. Hence, human resource development through workplace learning is more needed in less developed counties.

A comparative study has been conducted on workforce employment pattern and productivity of different countries by ILO (2012) where they found that, Bangladesh is a country with low skill and low productivity workforce due to non-responsive learning program in workplace. There is a lack of skill development initiatives in Bangladesh to develop knowledge and skills of employees to make the organization competitive. Organizations in Bangladesh provides only few systematic training as an initiative of learning and development (Mahmood & Akhter, 2011). National education and training system in Bangladesh is unable to provide sufficient skill, capacity and knowledge to employees. In addition to that, current learning system in Bangladesh have huge limitations regarding learning and development (Mahmood & Akhter, 2011).

Like other countries most of the organizations in Bangladesh are not eager to join in apprenticeship scheme to improve the knowledge, skill and productivity of their employees because of abundant labor supply as well as other institutional reasons such as industrial structure design for low skilled job (World Bank, 2006, 2007) lack of vocational training (ILO, 2009), lack of financial incentives for vocational training (Rahman, 1994; World Bank, 2006, 2007). The national education system and training approach of Bangladesh are deemed to be outmoded, obsolete and impractical in nature. Employees are unable to adjust with the modern science and technology, political and economic conditions as well as demographic structure. There is also a mismatch between employments needs and education system in Bangladesh (Bank, 2006; World Bank, 2000).

In order to encourage workplace learning in Bangladesh, government has initiated the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) reform project which is assisted by International Labor Organization (ILO) and supported by European Union. The purpose of this reform project is to enhance the competitiveness of the country in global market and diminish poverty by increasing the quality of Vocational education and training (Bangladesh Ministry of Education, 2011). Besides, in order to develop human resource at firm level organizations are giving more emphasis on workplace learning (Azad, 2015).

Workplace learning take place both in formal arrangement as well as in informal setting where formal learning refers to learning which take place in formal arrangement (such as

class room based learning) and informal learning means learning which occur in informal setting (such as discussion with colleague, problem solving etc.). However, researchers have identified that informal learning is more dominant than learning from formal settings in business organization (Ellinger & Cseh, 2007; Marsick & Marsick, 2009; Mattox, 2012). Previous studies argued that most of the times people learn informally where they feel the necessity to learn and they learn through experience or exchanging knowledge with each other in the workplace (Eraut, 2004; Global Focus, 2012). For example, Loewenstein and Spletzer (1996) argued that people learn 70% about their jobs informally. Similarly, a Capital Works study mentioned that probably 75% of the workforce learn from workplace through unofficial discussions with colleagues, self-learning, guiding by managers and alike methods and 25% gathered knowledge through formal learning and training (Global Focus, 2012).

In addition to that, Mincer (1989) found that approximately 80% of the US private sector's workplace learning is informal (cited in Sicherman, 1990). Marsick and Watkins (1990) reporting on Carnevale's (1984) statistics that employees' spend 83% of their working time to learn informally in workplace. More interestingly, Barron, Berger, and Black (1997) assume that informal learning consists of 85% of all learning. Moreover, Livingstone (2001) reporting on the New approaches to Lifelong Learning 1998 survey, explained that Canadian adult involved in five times more in informal learning than formal learning that is approximately 83%. In the contemporary time, Eraut (2011) conduct study across multidiscipline and reported that 70% to 80% of all learning in the workplace is informal. These statistics indicates that formal learning activities are no

longer sufficient for continuous learning at the workplace. Informal learning play a pivotal role for continuous learning in the workplace (Billett & Choy, 2013; Kim & McLean, 2014; Marsick, 2009; Wahab, Saad, & Samsudin, 2016). Therefore, learning in the workplace mostly emphasized on informal learning and it take place through the interaction, sharing knowledge and reflection of daily activities.

The concept of work-based informal learning and work-related education is not properly introduced within the preview of learning system of Bangladesh (Rahman, 1995). There is a lack of informal workplace learning and skill development strategies in Bangladesh (Mahmood & Akhter, 2011; Shohel, 2016). Although, for improving the skill of employees through learning in workplace public organization have taken some initiative, private organizations are lagging behind (Mahmood & Akhter, 2011). As per the review of Asian Development Bank, in private sector less than 5 percent employees are involved in employer-supported learning program in workplace (ADB, 2007). Indeed, employees' informal learning in workplace in private sector of Bangladesh is still inadequate (ADB, 2007; ILO, 2009; Miyan, 1991).

In Bangladesh, private commercial banking sector is the main driving force of the financial sector (Haque, 2013) and it plays the pivotal role in the development of economy (Saklain, 2012). Private commercial banks have been established through the deregulation and privatization under a series of new liberal policies in between the year 1980-1990 (Jones, Parker, & Ten Bos, 2005). At that time government has taken some initiative to reform the banking sector by decentralizing the nationalized banks and

reforming private commercial banks to enhance the competitiveness among the banks. At present there are a total of 39 private commercial banks in Bangladesh which are operating under a highly competitive environment (Bangladesh Bank, 2015). The environment of private commercial banks has changed from teller to seller where employees are the main catalyst in implementing the relationship banking strategy. Activities of employees influence the implementation of organizational decisions and help to achieve the organizational target. Therefore, knowledge and skill development of banking professionals is important for achieving competitive advantage (Azad, 2015).

The need for workplace learning increases in banking sector due to the economic turmoil, ongoing internalization of banking, and increase in new technology (Adizes, 2014; Antonacopoulou, 2004; Leicher & Mulder, 2016). Informal workplace learning is also needed for employees for developing their different sort of skills such as, interpersonal relationship skill, better service providing skill, leadership skill, information gathering and dissemination skill and decision making skill (CIPD, 2006). Azad (2015) pointed out that, technology is no longer remains a major differentiator among banks and no more the factor of competitive advantage where the key competencies of banking sector is comprehensive talent management of its employees and ease them with social networking. Only the well-learned human resource can take advantage of modern integrated talent practices and develop partnership with organization's leaders to improve the proficiencies of the organization.

In addition to that, recent studies conducted by Dastagir (2012) and Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy, and Baert (2011) have explained the benefits and necessities of workplace learning in private commercial banks where they pointed out that, workplace learning is essential to secure and retain employees in the organization. They also mentioned that learning create opportunity for employees to work more and perform their best at the workplace. Through informal workplace learning employees can exchange their knowledge and skills easily between groups, departments, as well as between the top and bottom of the organizational structure and discuss with all managerial levels which is needed for organizational success.

It is important to highlight that, learning from errors (one type of informal workplace learning) is essential in banking sector (Holland, 2010). As employees are handling the challenges of rapid changing and volatile environment, the probabilities of errors are high. Errors related to knowledge-and rules take place when knowledge or rules are not applied or are applied in a wrong way (Leicher & Mulder, 2016; Reason, 1995). Workplace learning is highly needed to minimize such kind of errors in bank. Therefore, as a high risk sector, informal workplace learning is mostly needed for banks (Froehlich, Segers, & Van den Bossche, 2014; Hetzner, Gartmeier, Heid, & Gruber, 2009; Leicher & Mulder, 2016).

But there is a lack of workplace learning practices in banking sector of Bangladesh due to the absent of proper knowledge management such as, lack of knowledge based marketing, lack of sharing knowledge and information with colleagues and absence of

workplace learning culture (Faruk, Al-Faruque, and Akhter (2015). In addition to that, work-related informal learning such as, learning through discussion, informal meetings, and reflection of daily practices are not properly emphasized in this sector. In their study, Mahmud, Mirza, and Hosain (2016) found that there is lack of learning through the process of knowledge exchange and communication in private commercial banks. They also identified that, only 27% employees are exchanging knowledge with others and 73% are not clear about exchange of knowledge. Generally, private commercial banks in Bangladesh organize on- the-job training, job rotation, coaching or understudy approach in order to improve the knowledge of employees but these are not adequate for improving their skills and abilities (Rahman & Rahman, 2013). They also identified that, most of the time private commercial banks only arrange formal training for their employees which keep them far from practical learning.

Due to all of these reasons private commercial banks of Bangladesh may facing a number of problems. Firstly, the expenditure-income (EI) ratio of private commercial bank was higher (67.6%) compare to foreign commercial banks (64.7%) in the year 2010 (Rahman & Rahman, 2013). Although domestic private commercial banks are spending more but income is not as much as expected. Moreover, domestic private commercial banks are lagging behind by 6.7 percent in comparison to foreign commercial banks (Masum, Azad, Hoque, & Beh, 2015). Secondly, a number of operational losses (i.e. financial loss, losses of clients and customers, losses of reputation) have taken place in private commercial banks from operational risk events (i.e. fraud, theft, hacking damage, duplicate payment) (Sultana, 2015). Thirdly, customers of private commercial banks are

not getting desired services from banks. Bank clients expect that bank employees will fulfill their promises in time, be courteous, provide personal attention, error free record and be knowledgeable in dealing the banking operation which are absent in employees behavior (Islam & Ahmed, 2005). These lead the customers to be dissatisfied and place a lot of complaints against private commercial banks. In the economic year 2012-2013 the number of complaints of private commercial banks was 4296 which increased by 4476 in the economic year 2014-2015 (Star Business Report, 2015). Out of overall complaints of banking sector 56% complaints was against 39 private commercial banks (Star Business Report, 2015). Types of complaints against different activities of the banking sector are provided in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1
Types of Complaints against Banks (in Percentage)

Types of complaints	Bank Guarantee	Remittances	All kinds of Bill	Mobile banking	Loan and advances	General banking	Card	Miscellaneous	Total
Percentage	2.21	1.63	20.38	2.32	17.05	34.63	5.8	15.98	100%

Source: Star Business Report, 2015

Table 1.1 shows that, all kinds of complaints were related with operational activities of employees working in different divisions. As employees are required to engage in face-to-face communication, attend to customer's requirement, respond to customer's enquiry and fulfill customer's expectations (McKenna, 2006) they should be knowledgeable. Therefore, all of the problems faced by banking sector may be avoided by maintaining proper knowledge of employees which is possible through informal workplace learning (Hossain, 2014; Rahman & Rahman, 2013; Sultana, 2015). More particularly, Karim and

Chowdhury (2014) suggested that customer complains of private commercial banks can be reduced by satisfying customers which is possible in the way of providing continuous learning to employees regarding communication, courtesy and etiquette while dealing with customers. Therefore, informal workplace learning is more needed to improve the knowledge and skill of employees which makes the organization successful.

1.3 Problem Statement

Workplace learning is the focal of human resource development because it contributes to the organizational adaptability and competitiveness. It is the platform for developing knowledge and skills of employees in organization (Caudill, 2015; Wahab et al., 2016). Previously different scholars' explained workplace learning in different ways through which employees can learn in organization. Some of the researchers stated that typically there are two broad forms of workplace learning namely formal and informal learning (Cacciattolo, 2015; Hicks, Bagg, Doyle, & Young, 2007; Kyndt & Baert, 2013; Kyndt et al., 2016; Manuti, Pastore, Scardigno, Giancaspro, & Morciano, 2015; Sambrook, 2005). Some other researchers stated that workplace learning can be formal, informal and incidental (Elkjaer & Wahlgren, 2006; Marsick & Watkins, 1992; Tynjälä, 2013). However, nowadays most of the researchers stated that informal learning is the best approach of workplace learning by which employees can develop their knowledge and skills more effectively (Bednall & Sanders, 2016; Cacciattolo, 2015; Doornbos, Simons, & Denessen, 2008; Eraut & Hirsh, 2010; Jeon & Kim, 2012; Lohman, 2005; Noe, Tews, & Marand, 2013).

Informal learning refers to the learning that occur outside of a formal environment and which is mainly guided by learners themselves (Bednall & Sanders, 2016; Eraut, 2004). It is one of the most predominant ways of achieving knowledge and skills in the workplace (Ellinger, 2005; Kim & McLean, 2014). A number of studies have shown that people acquire and transfer knowledge more effectively and repeatedly in informal learning situations rather than in traditional formal learning (Ellinger, 2005; Enos, Kehrhahn, & Bell, 2003; Kim & McLean, 2014). Although, billions of dollars are spending on formal learning to develop employees' knowledge and skills, (Jeon & Kim, 2012; O'Leonard, 2008) it is not always appropriate in developing skills they needed to adapt with the current business changes (Hartley, 2000). Therefore, a mentionable number of scholars have pointed out that workplace learning that takes place outside of formal learning settings is more important for skill development (Carnevale, 1984; Hartley, 2000; Jeon & Kim, 2012).

Presently, the interest in informal learning has increased among organizations, human resource development (HRD) professionals or workplace learning professionals due to the change in the learning pattern from traditional instructor-initiated events to continuous knowledge acquisition (Kim & McLean, 2014). Such types of learning can help employees to reflect on their own experiences, adjust their technique to work, and improve their performance (Marsick & Watkins, 1990).

Previously, most of the studies on informal workplace learning have used qualitative approach that includes interviews, observations and case studies (Ellinger, Beattie,

Hamlin, & Gump, 2010; Govaerts et al., 2011; Hulsbos, Evers, & Kessels, 2016; Westbrook & Veale, 2001). These studies provide good insights regarding the factors that can influence informal workplace learning (Ellinger, 2005; Kyndt & Baert, 2013). Indeed, there is a lack of empirical research on informal workplace learning (Doornbos et al., 2008; Kyndt & Baert, 2013; López, Peón, & Ordás, 2006; Marsick & Watkins, 2001; Wahab et al., 2016). Among them, a number of researchers suggested to conduct more empirical research on informal learning in workplace (Hulsbos et al., 2016; Kyndt & Baert, 2013). Therefore, informal learning in workplace has to be analyzed empirically through quantitative method.

Earlier researches on informal learning have suggested a number of antecedents for enhancing informal learning in the workplace (Bednall, Sanders, & Runhaar, 2014; Berg & Chyung, 2008; Ellinger, 2005; Kyndt et al., 2016; Runhaar, Sanders, & Yang, 2010). Among these antecedents organizational factors, such as HRM practices and leadership style play the most crucial role in lubricating the learning process (Bednall et al., 2014; Doornbos et al., 2008; Kyndt et al., 2016).

HRM practices plays an important role in enabling and inspiring participation in informal learning activities (Bednall et al., 2014; Kyndt & Baert, 2013). Bednall and Sanders (2016) mentioned that, HRM practices play a significant role for enhancing informal learning in the workplace. HRM practices can enhance informal workplace learning such as reflection of regular activities, keeping up-to-date, asking feedback, knowledge sharing and innovative behavior (Sanders & Lin, 2016). A well-resourced HRM practices

are likely to have strong knowledge management systems in workplace (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2012). Previously, most of the studies considered individual (Batt, 2002; Kehoe & Wright, 2013) and organizational (Esch, Wei, & Chiang, 2016; Huselid, 1995) performance as an outcome of HRM practices. Studies considering informal workplace learning as an outcome are still limited. Therefore, studies considering the association between HRM practices and informal workplace learning will be worthwhile.

Although, HRM practices are important for enhancing informal learning in workplace, sole implementation of HR policies and practices are not sufficient for improving informal workplace learning. Beside HRM practices, leadership style can play an important role for enhancing learning in workplace (López et al., 2006). Froehlich et al., (2014) mentioned that, leadership is an important factor that can influence informal learning in a greater extent. Moreover, researchers have indicated that there is a strong link between leadership style and knowledge creation (Kumar, Jain, & Tiwary, 2013a). Leadership provides structure of learning networks that can help to disseminate and institutionalize learning and creates a new knowledge (Hannah & Lester, 2009; Hasson, Ulrica, Holmstrom, Karanika-Murray, & Tafvelin, 2016). It also develops a process of facilitating individual and group efforts to learn and achieve collective objectives in the organization (Berson, Nemanich, Waldman, Galvin, & Keller, 2006; Hasson et al., 2016). Previously limited number of studies considered the relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning. Hence, still there is a need for additional research to explore the relationship in a depth. Leadership through their direct and indirect effect and

communication with employees create favorable atmosphere for learning (Hasson et al., 2016; Yukl, 2009).

Although, HRM practices and leadership is important for enhancing informal learning, researches are insufficient yet to identify the relationship of these variables. Previously, some of the researchers take initiative to identify the relationship between HRM practices and informal workplace learning (Bednall et al., 2014; Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2012; López et al., 2006; Sanders & Lin, 2016) and leadership and informal workplace learning (Froehlich et al., 2014; Hasson et al., 2016) but they studied it separately. Therefore, by integrating HRM practices and leadership style in a single study it is possible to contribute to the exceptional theoretical understanding in workplace learning literature.

Recently, a few researchers conducted study by investigating the relationship between HRM practices and learning and leadership style and learning (Bednall & Sanders, 2016; Berson et al., 2006; Hislop, 2003), but there is no solution regarding the mechanism of the relationship because of their unclear findings. López-Cabrales, Real, and Valle (2011) and López et al. (2006) identified that there is a direct relationship between HRM practices and learning. Similarly, Bednall et al. (2014) also identified that HRM practices directly related to informal learning. On the contrary, other researchers identified that HRM practices and learning are indirectly related (Diaz-Fernandez, Pasamar-Reyes, & Valle-Cabrera, 2016; Jaw & Liu, 2003). Some of the researchers stated that there is a missing link between HRM practices and outcome and call for future study by using a

mediator (Hislop, 2003; Morrow & McElroy, 2001; Moynihan, Gardner, Park, & Wright, 2001). Specially, Hislop (2003) proposed that organizational commitment can play an important role in mediating the relationship between HRM practices and sharing knowledge. In addition to that Sanders and Lin (2016) stated that HRM practices can enhance informal learning through affective commitment.

On the other hand, Berson et al. (2006) conducted a study between leadership and learning and suggested to conduct future research by including a mediator for better explaining the mechanism of the relationship. More particularly, Bel (2010) pointed out that different leadership styles influence innovation through commitment. Likewise, Faraz, Yanxia, Ahmed, Estifo and Raza (2018) mentioned that incorporating mediating variable is necessary to explain the relationship between transactional leadership and innovative work behavior (i.e. informal workplace learning) and Afsar, Badir, and Saeed (2014) agreed that there is a close relationship between transformational leadership style and innovative work behavior and suggested that future studies should consider the mediating effect of organizational commitment. More particularly, Solinger, Van Olffen, and Roe (2008) stated that three components model of organizational commitment had some problems and noted that affective commitment is the only component without substantial problems. Therefore, current study considers affective commitment as a mediator on the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning.

Moreover, previous studies have shown that organizational commitment is important for enhancing learning in workplace (Masaki & Muramoto, 2015) and more particularly, Treuer, McHardy, and Earl (2013) stated that affective commitment plays an important role for learning. However, the role of affective commitment as a mediator between human resource management practices and leadership style and informal workplace learning has not been thoroughly studied yet.

Therefore, in order to fulfill the theoretical and practical gap this study will contribute to the literature by examining the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning with mediating effect of affective commitment.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the problem statement, the research questions are as follows:

1. Do organizations' human resource management practices (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing) have positive relationship with informal workplace learning?
2. Does leadership style (transformational and transactional) have positive relationship with informal workplace learning?
3. Does affective commitment mediate the relationship between organizations' human resource management practices (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practice, employment security, promotion

opportunity, empowerment, information sharing) and informal workplace learning?

4. Does affective commitment mediate the relationship between organizations' leadership style (transformational and transactional) and informal workplace learning?

1.5 Research Objectives

The general objective of the study is to examine the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between human resource management practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. More specifically, the objectives of the study are:

1. To explore the relationship between human resource management practices and informal workplace learning.
2. To examine the relationship between leadership style and informal workplace Learning.
3. To identify the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between human resource management practices and informal workplace learning.
4. To identify the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning.

1.6 Scope of the Research

This study investigates the relationship between human resource management practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning of private commercial banks in Bangladesh. Paul (2015) stated that, banking is an emerging discipline where the continuous learning is essential so that it can reap the benefits of new products and services. The study considers the banking sector of Bangladesh specially the private commercial banks because private commercial bank is one of the largest employers in Bangladesh. More than 93,868 people are employed in private commercial banks in Bangladesh and it holds 62% asset of the total financial sector (Bangladesh Bank, 2015). Branches of private commercial banks have been chosen for this study because actual banking operation takes place at branch level. Moreover, the study considers the branches of private commercial banks operating in Dhaka division of Bangladesh because Dhaka is the capital city with thirteen districts and around 42% branches of all private commercial banks are situated in Dhaka division (Bangladesh Bank, 2015).

The respondent of the study is head of the department (HOD). They are most suitable respondent for this study. The necessity of learning of departmental head is increasing due to the rapid changes and continuous internationalization of banks (Froehlich et al., 2014; Lüscher & Lewis, 2008). They can take initiative for learning and development of other employees working under their supervision and develop the organization as a learning organization. Moreover, their learning is crucial because they are maintaining

communication with upper level and lower level of employees and dealing with regular challenges associated with their job.

1.7 Significance of the Research

This study will have both theoretical and practical contribution regarding human resource development.

1.7.1 Theoretical Contribution

Previously, studies on workplace learning has long been focused on traditional off-the-job formal learning method such as seminars, training, coaching and various other educational programs (Marsick, Watkins, Callahan, & Volpe, 2006; Strimel et al., 2014). But the formalized way of such learning may not always maintain the proper match between the learners' needs and learning purpose. It is clear that formal learning have limited capability of transferring new knowledge to practical field (Bryans & Smith, 2000; Chen, 2001; Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). On the other hand informal workplace learning has been found more competent compared to formal structured learning programs (Cross, 2011) because it frequently accumulate new knowledge and skills (Lucas & Moreira, 2009). In addition to that, informal learning provides opportunity to individuals at work to learn and improve more from work situation compared to any learning from formal arrangement (Smith, Oczkowski, & Smith, 2008).

Moreover informal learning in workplace is highly recognized because it contributes to fulfill the mutual interest of both individuals and organization (Kim & McLean, 2014). As individuals in an organization start informal learning while they are working, it saves money (Cross, 2011; Shohel, 2016), provides benefits of proper utilization of time, and satiates learners' particular needs (Neal & Hainlen, 2012) compare to formal learning. Hulsbos et al. (2016) stated that informal learning increase individual knowledge, skills, recognitions and growth. When employees develop their skill and expertise through informal learning they can develop their employability and successfully face the internal and external work-related challenges (Joo & Ready, 2012). The theory of situated learning describes informal learning in workplace setting and considers knowing and learning is a process which occurs through regular practice in workplace (Alasoini, 2011). The success of informal learning depends on how extensively the organization through it functions support informal learning. Moreover, organizational and personal factors can greatly influence informal learning in workplace (Berg & Chyung, 2008; Kyndt et al., 2016; Park & McLean, 2008).

Organizational factors namely HRM practices and leadership style can strongly influence the informal learning. Previously, researchers conducted study on identifying the relationship between HRM practices and informal learning and leadership style and informal learning but the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal learning in a single model have not thoroughly study yet. Moreover, how does affective commitment mediate the relationship between these variables has not also been studied until now. Hence, by considering all of these variables the current study intends

to contribute to the existing literature of informal workplace learning in a greater in depth, especially in the context of Bangladesh.

1.7.2 Practical Contribution

First and foremost, this study will provide better information to managers, decision makers and human resource practitioners of private commercial bank to perfectly understand the importance of informal workplace learning and take initiative to improve the situation of informal workplace learning for employees. Secondly, HR development managers and practitioners of private commercial banks may design and implement the learning program that will be fruitful for employees.

Thirdly, the practitioners such as researchers, academicians and policy makers can conveniently use the research result for future research. Finally, government and its associated department which are working for the betterment of private commercial banks can take lessons from this study and utilize it for the future course of action. In essence, the study may help HR development professionals to understand how human resource management practices, leadership style influence informal workplace learning by the use of mediating effect of affective commitment.

1.8 Definition of Variables

The following are the key variables used in this study and how it is defined and conceptualized for the purpose of this study.

- **Informal workplace learning:** Informal workplace learning has conceptualized based on the work of Choi and Jacobs (2011) which is originally developed by Lohman (2005). In this study informal workplace learning refers to learning activities that take place when an employee involve in his or her daily activities in a self-initiated manner and which are not directly supported by the organization. Informal workplace learning activities occur through learning with others, self experimentation and external scanning. Learning with others refers to learning by sharing knowledge and experiences with others, observing activities of others and collaborating with others. Self-experimentation denotes informal learning which occurs when individuals actively involved in experimentation and explore new ideas and develop better technique. Finally, external scanning refers to informal learning which occurs when individual involve in external sources such as learning through reading journals, attending conferences, searching internet, and communicating with experts.
- **Human resource management practices:** Human resource management practices refer to the management activities that help an organization efficiently utilize its human resources with a view to achieve the goals and objectives of organization (Jackson & Schuler, 1995). In this study, HRM Practices have been

denoted as the various activities undertaken by organization to enhance their employees' workplace learning.

- a. **Selective hiring:** Selective hiring is conceptualized according to the view of Zacharatos, Barling, and Iverson (2005). Selective hiring in this study refers to the selection procedures applied by the organization which requires the applicants to pass through several rounds of interviews and tough selection procedures (Pfeffer, 1998).
- b. **Extensive training:** The definition of extensive training has developed based on the work of Jaw and Liu (2003). In this study training is defined as the arrangement of comprehensive opportunities for employees to develop their knowledge, skills and abilities that are directly and indirectly concern with their current job.
- c. **Performance appraisal:** This construct is conceptualized based on the study of Chuang and Liao (2010). In this study performance appraisal refers to the periodic assessment of employees by the immediate supervisor and provide feedback to improve performance.
- d. **Compensation practices:** Compensation practices refers to all kinds of direct and indirect financial payment provided by the organization to their employees for the work done by them (Desseler, 2013). It is conceptualized based on the study of Tessema and Soeters (2006). Compensation should be attractive, internally and externally equitable, reflect performance as well as standard of living.

- e. **Employment security:** Employment security in this study refers to the practice of providing the employees with stable employment (Pfeffer, 1998). It is conceptualized based on the study of Zacharatos et al. (2005).
- f. **Promotion opportunity:** Promotional opportunity has been conceptualized based on the study of Mostafa, Gould-Williams, and Bottomley (2015). Promotion opportunity refers to the opportunity to be fairly promoted from current position to desired potential position within the organization.
- g. **Empowerment:** Empowerment have conceptualized based on the work of Jaw and Liu (2003). In this study empowerment means organization allows employees to assume various roles and responsibilities and thus apply greater influence at work while enjoying higher autonomy.
- h. **Information sharing:** In this study information sharing refers to two way communication between management and employees through which management share information such as operational measures, financial performance and strategy and employees share information related to their work activities with management. This construct has conceptualized based on Paré and Tremblay (2007).
- **Leadership style:** Leadership refers to a person who influence and use power to lead others in order to achieve specific goal (Colquitt, Lepine, & Wesson, 2009). There are two common types of leadership behaviors namely transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). In this study, leadership styles have been denoted as various behaviors undertaken by leaders to enhance their followers' workplace learning.

- a. **Transformational leadership style:** Transformational leadership style refers to the leadership style where leader act as a role model for followers to see and learn the suitable attitude and behaviors and followers are apprehended to change their behavior as per the leader's behavior (Colquitt et al., 2009). In this study transformational leadership style is conceptualized based on Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5x-short) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) and adapted by previous researches (e.g. Ismail, Mohamad, Mohamed, Rafiuddin, & Zhen, 2010; Jung & Avolio, 2000) .
- b. **Transactional leadership style:** Transactional leadership style refers to the leadership style where leader emphasis on increasing efficiency of established procedure, exchanging reward when goals are attained, monitoring mistakes and errors actively and intervening only when standards are failed to reach (Colquitt et al., 2009). In this study transactional leadership style is conceptualized based on Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5x-short) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) and adapted by previous researches (e.g. Ismail et al., 2010; Jung & Avolio, 2000).
- **Affective commitment:** In this study the definition of affective commitment is adapted from the definition by Allen and Meyer (1990). Hence, affective commitment refers to the strength of employees' identification with and involvement in, and enjoys membership in a particular organization.

1.9 Organization of the Thesis

This study first of all intends to examine the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. Besides, the study aims to investigate the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. To achieve the objectives of the study, a total of five chapters covering various aspects of the research will be presented. Chapter One presents the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, scope of study, and the significance of the study as well as a set of key definitions of the variables. Chapter Two provides discussions about the available literatures on informal workplace learning, human resource management practices, leadership style and affective commitment. The underpinning theory of the study also elaborated in this chapter. Chapter Three represents the methodology of the study which includes the research design, operationalization of variables, questionnaire development, data collection procedures as well as the data analysis techniques. Chapter Four shows the overall findings of the research according to objectives of the study. Chapter Five focuses the discussion and conclusion of the research. The theoretical and practical contributions, limitations of the research, a set of recommendations and some future research directions are also recommended in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of relevant literature to investigate the relationship between human resource management practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. At the beginning, this chapter presents the concepts, definitions, levels and types of learning in workplace. Secondly, it emphasizes on informal workplace learning activities in detail and underpinning theory of the study. Thirdly, extensive literature regarding human resource management practices, leadership style and affective commitment are being detailed out. In addition to that, the role of affective commitment as a mediator has also been discussed.

2.2 Concepts of Workplace Learning

Generally, the term learning is defined as a route in which any kind of knowledge is achieved (Eraut, 2000) and workplace can be defined as an important place for learning and development where knowledge can be generated (Avis, 2010). Working is interrelated with learning and subsequently, workplace learning is the way in which knowledge is upgraded and skills are acquired at the place of work (Cacciattolo, 2015). Previously different scholars used different terminology to explain the term workplace learning such as workplace learning (Marsick, 1998; Matthews, 1999; Moon & Na, 2009;

Watkins, 1995), learning in the workplace (Marsick, 1987), work-related learning (Doornbos, Bolhuis, & Denessen, 2004; Westbrook & Veale, 2001), work-based learning (Raelin, 1997), learning at work (Boud & Garrick, 1999), workplace-based learning (Garrick, 1998), workplace-focused learning (Bierema & Eraut, 2004), integrated learning with working (Ellström, 2001; Torraco, 1999), workforce learning (Jacobs & Park, 2009) as well as organizational learning (López et al., 2006).

2.2.1 Definitions of Workplace Learning

There is no single definition of workplace learning and different scholars defined workplace learning from different angles. According to Raelin (2000) the term workplace learning can be defined as progressive activities and educational endeavor within the workplace in order to create organizational learning culture. Marsick (1987) defined workplace learning is the individual learning in the context of work and work organization which is related with careful and deliberate learning efforts to demonstrate on real learning experience.

In addition to that, Doornbos et al. (2004) defined workplace learning as a holistic process which includes in the interplay between employees and their environment and it is related to the internal system of inquisition, explanation, and development leading to learning result. They stated that workplace learning can occur both intentionally and spontaneously as well as directly or indirectly through work-related interplay and real life situation. Boud and Garrick (1999) defined workplace learning as an important endeavor

that contribute to the improvement of organization as well as contribute to the progress of individual workers through broader learning and development. It is not only related with current work competency but also related to future competencies. Moreover, learning in workplace indicates human modification or development that initially takes place in undertakings and context of activity (Fenwick, 2001, 2008).

Marsick and Watkins (1990) defined workplace learning as a holistic perspective which is related with the continuous improvement of individual, group and organization. Indeed, workplace learning is not simply a collection of individual who have learned rather a holistic integrated perspective which suggests that organizational learning begin with cognitive process of individual and is enhanced and preserved by organizational factors (Dyck, Starke, Mischke, & Mauws, 2005). Moreover, Matthews (1999) defined that workplace learning is a process by which individual learn towards achieving the goals of individual and organization. Similarly, Hicks et al. (2007) argued that workplace learning is a process by which people attain knowledge and skills and complete organizational task effectively. The result of workplace learning is to enhance the sustainable development of both individual and organization in order to achieve organizational goal and individual career advancement.

To sum up, workplace learning is integrated initiatives that encourage employees to learn formally and informally as an individual or group in order to develop knowledge, skill, and ability to achieve individual and organizational goal.

2.2.2 Level of Workplace Learning

Workplace learning is often studied at individual, group and organizational level. As individuals are the basic element of an organization, there is a fundamental assumption that an organization is able to learn when its individual members learn. This context uses learning in workplace metaphorically and provides a notion that when individuals learn then organization learns as well (Locke & Jain, 1995). Individual learning is essential because it is the starting point of organizational learning. Some researchers mentioned that learning in workplace can take place at team level because individuals bring and exchange their knowledge, skills to other individuals in a team (Avery, 2000). Lim, Laosirihongthong, and Chan (2006) also mentioned that learning at work occur both at individual and team level. In addition to that, learning in workplace occur at organizational level because organizational learning is greater than sum of individual learning (Wang & Ahmed, 2003). Therefore, the processes of learning in workplace take place not only in the individual level and team level but also in the entire organizational level. Moreover, it is a multiple level processes rather than a single level processes (Shrivastava, 1983).

Williams (2001) stated that, learning in workplace covers at least three levels: individual, group and organizational. In an organization, individual is a catalyst of his or her own learning which is related with individual personal development and can facilitate collective learning in the group with which he or she works. Organizational level learning is the sum of individual learning. Therefore, workplace learning starts from individual

and occurs at group and organizational level. Crossan, Lane, and White (1999) provides 4I model (namely: Intuiting, Interpreting, Integrating and Institutionalizing) with the consideration of three levels (namely: individual, group and organizational level) to represent the dynamic processes of learning in workplace. Similarly, Zietsma, Winn, Branzei, and Vertinsky (2002) stated that learning in workplace take place at different levels namely individual level, group level, and ultimately, at organizational level.

On the other hand, scholars (e.g. Garvin et al., 2008; Watkins & Marsick, 1993) mentioned that the level of learning in workplace can be broadly categorized into two which consist of nine dimensions. These two levels are people's level of learning and structural level of learning. People level learning comprises of learning at individual and team level while structural level learning comprises of learning at organizational and global level. The nine dimensions of learning in workplace namely learning environment, promote inquiry and dialogue, collaboration and team learning, knowledge management, empower people towards collective vision, participative policy making, reward flexibility, connect organization to the environment and strategic leadership prevails under these two categories. Out of these nine dimensions, learning environment, promoting inquiry and dialogue and employee empowerment indicates individual level learning while collaboration and team learning indicates team level learning. On the other hand, organizational level consists of knowledge management, participative policy making and reward flexibility while connection with the external environment and strategic leadership indicate learning at global level. However, Watkins and Marsick (2003) stated that learning in workplace take place at three basic levels namely individual

level, group level and organizational level. Matthews (1999) also argued for three levels of learning which occurs in workplace namely, (i) individual level (ii) group level and (iii) organizational level.

The whole process of learning in workplace is contingent upon the views and actions of individual who is the basic unit of organization. Individual learning is the basis of learning of employees and managers because individual learning is related with individual self-development (Wang & Ahmed, 2003). Individuals can take personal initiative for their own learning and development by the process of assessment, reflection, and action. Learning assists employees to continuously update skills and stay competitive. It is important to highlight that, learning of an individual in workplace depends on the knowledge of the other individuals and organization's environment (Simon, 1991; Thakur & Chaudhuri, 2015). For example, employees learn while working with coworkers in workplace by consciously observing their coworkers actions. In addition to that, individuals can also learn from their own actions and errors through rectifying them with the help of managers (Argyris, 1995; Rasheed, Ali, & Javaid, 2015).

However, group level learning can be defined as the process of social interaction through which members of an organization exchange their knowledge and skills within a group. More particularly, group learning occurs when individuals within a group exchange, share, and assimilate knowledge through understanding with one another (Argote, Gruenfeld, Naquin, & Turner, 2001). Group interpretation assists the improvement of shared understanding and quick integrating which emphasis on collective action within a

group. Moreover, shared understandings transform into well-maintained language, implanted in shared cognitive maps, and implemented in a coordinated fashion (Zietsma et al., 2002).

According to Senge (1997) when individuals join in a team and starts learning as its member then their learning ability improve. He also stated that learning starts with dialogue where ideas are openly exchanged and suggestions are received for further improvement. Ideas can be automatically generated through team learning. Moreover, team level learning not only creates extra ordinary organizational outcome but also increase the level of member's individual learning (Rasheed et al., 2015). For example, team members can learn some particular techniques from other member who is expert in that area. Thus, team members can learn from each other through observing, sharing and exchanging ideas. Moreover, team learning over a period of time develops a group culture (Thakur & Chaudhuri, 2015).

Beside these two levels, learning also takes place at organizational level. In case of explaining the concept of learning at organizational level the fact that comes in mind whether organization learn or not. Researchers like Simon (1991) pointed out that, individuals are the basis of organizational learning, and it is simply the sum of the learning of individuals. On the contrary, Levitt and March (1988) provided the argument that organization itself is the foundation of organizational learning and it is a reflection of shared ideas, systems, processes and structures of the organization. Similarly, Thakur and

Chaudhuri (2015) stated that, Organizational learning is the study of learning processes that occur within an organization.

Basically, learning at organizational level occurs when the whole organization addresses and solves problems, develops sources of learning, and generates cores competencies that represent the collective learning of employees. Organizational learning not only deals with resolving organizational issues, but also promotes individual advancement of knowledge and skills. Institutionalizing is an important example of organizational learning processes which explains both informal and formal mechanisms of information exchange, planning and control (Shrivastava, 1983). Indeed, organizational learning occurs in all forms of organization's activities and it happens in various speeds.

2.2.3 Different Types of Workplace Learning

According to Marsick and Watkins (1990) there are three distinct types of workplace learning, namely (i) formal, (ii) informal and (iii) incidental learning.

Generally, formal learning refers to the structured or planned learning where specific curriculums are given. It is an arranged learning framework where goals are predetermined and leads to recognize qualifications (Eraut, 2000; Kyndt, Dochy, & Nijs, 2009). Eraut (2000) stated that formal learning refers to the structured form of learning, which is usually organized in classroom environments with a nominated teacher or trainer. Learning period and outcomes are predetermined before arranging formal

learning program by setting objectives, time and resources allocated for learning (Kyndt et al., 2009). Therefore, formal learning is a class-room based learning organized as training and are planned, explicit and emphasis on individual learning and the outcomes of learning are predictable (Hager, 1998). Training is the example of formal learning where the instructor provides the instruction on how to perform a specific job which is sponsored by the organization.

However, informal learning is not a class room based or highly structured learning rather it is learner's control learning. A number of authors stated that informal learning is defined as learning by action and experience, courses or workshops take place outside the institutional curricula, and without explicit learning objectives, time, and support (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Cunningham & Hillier, 2013; Eraut, 2004; Livingstone, 1999, 2001; Marsick & Volpe, 1999; Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007; Sloep, 2012; Za, Spagnoletti, & North-Samardzic, 2014). For example, informal learning includes networking, coaching, performance planning to review learning needs, self-directed learning, mentoring and so on (Marsick & Watkins, 2003).

Some authors explained informal learning as a learner initiated approach and defined it as self-directed, intentional, unintentional, social, self-motivated, incidental, and without controlled by teacher or supervisor (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Colardyn & Bjornavold, 2004; Cook, Pachler, & Bradley, 2008; Cunningham & Hillier, 2013; Livingstone, 1999; Lucas & Moreira, 2009; Marsick & Watkins, 2001; Merriam et al., 2007). Hager (1998) viewed that informal workplace learning is unplanned and implicit, most of the times

collaborative and highly contextualized and outcomes are unpredictable. Moreover, from the planning perspective informal learning is unplanned and some researchers defined that informal learning is unplanned, unorganized, unanticipated, and even sometimes unacknowledged by the learners (Colley, Hodkinson, & Malcolm, 2002; Foley, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 2001). Individuals learn informally in the workplace through their interpersonal relationship. From this point of view informal learning can be defined as the process which takes place through continuous on-the-job interactions, by the support and feedback from the supervisors or colleagues (Bednall et al., 2014; Lucas & Moreira, 2009; Rowold & Kauffeld, 2008; Schulz & Roßnagel, 2010; Siebert, Mills, & Tuff, 2009). Therefore, informal learning is the learning that is situated outside of the academic curricula, unplanned and often occurs through on the job interaction.

Beside these two types of learning, scholar recognized another type of learning which is known as incidental learning. It is a sort of informal learning that takes place as a consequence of diverse activities without any motive to learn. Completion of work, interpersonal interface, recognizes culture of organization, trial-and-error investigation are the vivid examples of incidental learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Incidental learning takes place while doing other activities. Therefore, incidental learning is the by-product of other learning activities. The concept of informal learning and incidental learning are interrelated and interconnected (Garrick, 1998; Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Moreover, incidental learning is considered as the sub-set of informal learning and both are used interchangeably (Le Clus, 2011). Previous studies argued that incidental learning occur through discussion (Tillaart, Berg, & Warmerdam, 1998), social interaction,

investigation, repetition, (Cahoon, 1995) and problem solving and so on (Kerka, 2000). Indeed, most of the workplace learning is informal or incidental and are neither specified nor planned.

Although learning in workplace may occur both in formal arrangement and informal set up, researchers have identified that informal learning are more prominent than formal setting in business organizations (Ellinger, 2005; Ellinger & Cseh, 2007; Marsick, 2009; Mattox, 2012). Marsick (2006) stated that, employees learn around 80 percent from informal learning through communication and interaction. Subsequently, Eraut (2011) found that individual learn even up-to 90 percent through informal ways such as interaction and regular practices and so on.

Employees in the workplace learn informally from their colleague as well as their work (Strimel et al., 2014). Shohel (2016) conducted a study on informal learning in Bangladesh and pointed out that informal learning is a vital part of human lives which occurs in organization through peer interaction, trial and error, experience of life events and learning by doing. Basically, as a human entity employees learn in various contexts involving the regular interactions with others, from their own experience and so on (García-Peñalvo & Conde, 2014). When individual work with their coworkers, they learn through asking questions and getting instant feedbacks on their mutual work activities and events (Eraut, 2011; Lohman, 2005). Smith et al. (2008) identified that learning through informal set up gives the chance to the employees to learn and improve more than any formal arrangement. Indeed, learning through informal arrangement is more

superior in work organization than any formal learning events (Berings, Poell, & Simons, 2008; Cross, 2011; Van Der Heijden, Boon, Van der Klink, & Meijjs, 2009) .

By reviewing the literatures it can be argued that informal learning is more dominant form of learning in workplace. Informal and incidental learning are interchangeably used and incidental learning is also considered as a subset of informal learning. Hence, Kyndt and Baert (2013) identified workplace learning is broadly categorized into two form namely formal learning and informal learning. Learning through informal arrangement is the central of workplace learning. Eraut (2007) investigated the importance of informal learning in the workplace and identified that informal learning significantly influence the improvement of individual performance and organizational performance. Informal form of learning is highly powerful and influential in any organization in order to maximize overall professional expertise (Shohel, 2016; Van Der Heijden et al., 2009). Therefore, current study considers informal learning as a form of workplace learning to contribute the literature in depth.

2.2.4 Informal Workplace Learning Activities

In the workplace, employees' can learn through informal activities which in turn improve their knowledge and skills and develop their experience (Lohman, 2006). Informal learning is caused by the perceived deviation of a person's total record of experience and new experience which are not maintained properly (Jarvis, 1987; Lohman, 2000). Moreover, informal learning takes place when employees' face problems in organization

and handles these problems effectively. In organization, problems may be aggravated if employees do not exchange knowledge and do not apply their experience spontaneously to solve problems. For example, Lohman (2000) conducted a study on experienced teachers of United States and identified that teachers involved in three types of informal learning activities namely knowledge exchange, experimentation, and environmental scanning and also stated that if such activities are not properly maintained, performance problems occur in organization. These activities help individuals to respond in challenging situations and solve problems by experience cycle (Cseh, Watkins, & Marsick, 1998). Therefore, informal learning starts when individuals face difficult situation or required to learn something new in the workplace for the enhancement of knowledge, skills and experience (Doornbos et al., 2004; Watkins & Marsick, 1992). In an organization, informal learning activities take place through different dimensions. Lohman (2005) identified that, there are three dimensions of informal learning activities namely, learning with others, self experimentation and external scanning (Choi & Jacobs, 2011; Lohman, 2006).

2.2.4.1 Learning with Others

Learning with others is defined as learning by sharing knowledge and experiences with others, observing activities of others (Lohman & Woolf, 2001) and collaborating with others (Choi & Jacobs, 2011). The concept of knowledge sharing may be limited with only the meaning of exchange, but learning with others indicates the greater role of others in learning process. Others in an organization may include peers, managers, supervisors,

and subordinates who are working collectively in the workplace. An individual learner in an organization may inspire others for their own learning as well as their partners' learning (Koopmans, Doornbos, & Eekelen, 2006). Individuals in an organization may learn through various activities like, talk to others, share learning resources, collaborate with others, and observe others regarding their evolving tasks.

One of the significant studies conducted by Doornbos et al. (2008) on Dutch police officers and identified that police officers learn a lot from other people or learn a lot through collaboration. They mentioned that out of six work-related learning, five work-related learning are associated with the time of working and police officers learn while working through collaboration with others and talk during their work with others. Along with the same line, Kwakman (2003) conducted a study on school teachers in Netherland and identified that collaborative learning is a vital factor for teachers learning. Indeed, collaboration and interaction with others are the important ways to learn from others.

2.2.4.2 Self Experimentation

The term self-experimentation refers to informal learning which occurs when individuals whole heartedly involved in experimentation and explore new ideas and develop better technique. One of the important studies conducted by Lohman (2000) on experienced teachers of United States and identified that critical reflection on action is the main form of self-experimentation. He also stated that, teachers continuously monitoring their work, assessing their performance and identifying better technique to improve performance.

Marsick and Watkins (1990) also emphasized on intentional reflection which is necessary for learners and in this process learners take more time to observe intensively of others practices to identify their beliefs, values and assumptions. Subsequently, Marsick and Volpe (1999) stated that, individuals can look back on their earlier activities if their performances are evaluated properly against predetermined standard. When individual perceives deviation in their performance compare to standard they may emphasis on corrective action. Self-reflection provides opportunity to employees for corrective action by looking back to their previous action. Moreover, an interactive process of action and reflection may be considered as self-experimentation. Therefore, self-experimentation is considered as individual learning (Doornbos et al., 2004; Kwakman, 2003) which is associated with contriving a new application for solving diverse problems in the context of emerging situation.

2.2.4.3 External Scanning

External scanning refers to learning which occurs when individual involve in external sources such as learning through reading journals, attending conferences, searching internet, and meeting with experts. In the age of globalization where work situation is continuously changing and new problems are emerging, information available at organization may not sufficient for employees to administer the work. At present, professionals can deliberately gather knowledge and information from different sources which are not available at workplace to efficiently accomplish the work (Doornbos et al., 2004). For example, due to the advancement of technology employees continuously

gather knowledge or information through internet. Paradise (2008) pointed out that, knowledge from internet is one of the important ways to learn informally. Therefore, external scanning is considered as one of the vibrant ways of learning through which employees can spontaneously learn from different sources even from outsider sources.

2.2.5 Theories of Informal Workplace Learning

A number of traditional learning theories such as behavioral and cognitive learning theories can contribute to learning in workplace (Greeno & Moore, 1993). These theories have some limitations in contributing to informal workplace learning. Behavioral theories emphasis on individual learning by stimulus-response conditioning but ignoring mental processes by which people develops internal idea regarding external objects. On the other hand, cognitive theories of learning, irrespective of the difference among the psychoanalytic, constructivist, and critical cultural viewpoint (Fenwick, 2000), come as an antitheses to the behavioral theories for describing how cognitive agents learn by the help of symbolic information processing (Glynn, Lant, & Milliken, 1994; Moore, 1998). Even though, most of the traditional theories of learning admit the presence of interactive relations between individuals and the environmental settings through which intellectual capabilities can be enhanced, but the mechanism of interaction between individuals and the context has never been explored by these theories (Greeno & Moore, 1993). As there are some limitations encountered with traditional behavioral and cognitive learning theories, situated learning theory is suitable for explaining informal learning in workplace (Yuan & McKelvey, 2004).

Situated learning theory considers organizations as multifarious adaptive system rather than only an information processor. In the modern world, organizations are running with huge competition where situated learning increases the rate of learning by considering how fast organization learns compare to their competitors. This theory emphasis on learning through problem solving, knowledge sharing, experience examining, reflecting, and interacting with others (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Stein, 1998). Therefore, current study chooses situated learning theory for explaining informal workplace learning. The next section describes situated learning theory in detail as an underpinning theory.

2.2.6 Situated Learning Theory

The theory of situated learning serves as an underpinning theory for this study. This theory is provided by Lave and Wenger (1991) in their book “situated learning: legitimate peripheral participation to position learning within a social participatory context”. Situated learning is most prevalent in the area of higher educational institutions, business organizations, adult educators, general population, government and managerial projects (Thompson, 2007). Earlier research used situated learning theory to understand how students develop knowledge through a process that take place within the social setting (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The theory of situated learning incorporates learning into the workplace and considers knowing and learning as a process which forms knowledge as an indispensable part of regular practice (Alasoini, 2011). Eraut (2004) and Fuller and Unwin (2011) strongly argued for situated learning that consider learning as a process which is related with tasks, activities and social relations

and develop knowledge and skills. It is also an effective ways of work 'interactions for increasing knowledge flows (Noe, Colquitt, Simmering, & Alvarez, 2003). Moreover, it is a social collective process where individuals personally recognize to help each other, work on similar problems, share each other about work practices, develop trust and mutual relation that leads to learning and innovation within the community (Faraj & Wasko, 2001).

It is important to highlight that, as per situated learning theory there is no learning which is not situated and focus on the share and exchange nature of learning and knowledge gathering (Atkin, 1994; Mahar & Harford, 2005). According to Marsick and O'Neil (1999) situated learning theory is also related to action learning. Action learning depends on employee development by which employees are developed through engaging task, taking responsibilities for important matter, receiving support from the key colleagues and discussing with them on necessary issues (Pedler, 2011). There are two important concepts evolved from situated learning theory such as legitimate peripheral participation and community of practice (CoP). Legitimate peripheral participation support that, in an organization new member learn to become a practitioner by engaging in CoP. Basically situated learning occurs through the process of dialogue, observation, storytelling and discussion between people as they share and interact within a practice, and more concrete on learning by doing (Sense, 2008). Through situated learning participants can mutually improve their technical and social competencies and develop their identities and shared meanings around perspectives and growing practices (Brown & Duguid, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Sense, 2011; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder,

2002). On the contrary, cognitive learning such as formal or classroom learning which inclines to abstract, intentional and non-contextual and is not similar to situated learning which is ingrained with context, practice and culture. Situated learning emphasis on networking which is important mechanism for accessing and integrating new knowledge (Garavan, Carbery, & Murphy, 2007). Individuals develop a network in the community and exchange their experience with each other through participation (Loyarte & Rivera, 2007).

Moreover, individual learning is a not a solitary phenomenon rather it is a social phenomenon (Simon, 1991). It is necessary to give emphasis on the formation and changes of communities to understand learning in workplace (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). Individuals develop new knowledge in organization where organization plays an important role for expressing and amplifying that knowledge (Nonaka, 1994) . It is a matter of fact that, learners in an organization learns to participate in community of practice from which they achieve particular knowledge (Brown & Duguid, 1991).

Besides, situated learning theory stated that, if organization invests in human resources for enhancing learning of its members that in turn increase organization capabilities. Investment in human resources increases the knowledge, skill and talent of its employees which in turn enhance the competitive advantage of the organization. Therefore, situated learning can be viewed as a meager investment in present in return of huge gain for future (Anthony, Rosman, Eze, & Gan, 2009).

Moreover, the success of situated learning not only depends on organizational policy but also depends on employees motivation and eagerness to participate and contribute to community (Pastoors, 2007). A number of practices namely sharing, transferring, acquiring and generating knowledge are associated with situated learning (Davenport, 2000; Martins, Donald, & Martins, 2013).

Furthermore, situated learning theory posits that individual factors (Berg & Chyung, 2008) and organizational factors (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Islam & Khan, 2014; Pircher, Zenk, & Risku, 2007; Cerasoli et al, 2014) affect the informal learning such as knowledge sharing of employees in workplace. More particularly, HRM practices and leadership style can influence informal workplace learning as learning is situated (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Pircher et al., 2007; Wen, Chang, Lee, & Wei, 2014; Cerasoli et al, 2014). Currie and Kerrin (2003) stated that, human resource management practices can influence informal learning which is situated. In addition, Martins et al. (2013) argued that, leadership style can facilitate the transfer of knowledge across the organization and encourage learning in workplace. Besides HRM practices and leadership, affective commitment is needed for learning because HRM practices and leadership affect informal learning directly as well as indirectly through the mediation of affective commitment. Affective commitment is needed to learn because it increases the sense of belonging that generate interest to learn in workplace (Wen et al., 2014). Moreover, employees who are affectively committed are more willing to “go beyond job specification, to share solutions to problems with coworkers, encouraging them to contribute with suggestions and ideas for service improvements” (Lages & Piercy, 2012,

p. 4). All these traits include learning from and with others in the organization and form learning in workplace. Corso, Giacobbe, and Martini (2009) argued that, organization should give more emphasis on its levers which increase commitment of its employees in order to learn effectively in workplace. Hence, HRM practices and leadership style influence in creating employee affective commitment which leads to sharing knowledge and learning.

2.2.7 Factors Influencing Informal Workplace Learning

Previously a number of studies have identified a number of factors that affect informal workplace learning (Berg & Chyung, 2008; Clarke, 2005; Ellinger, 2005; Sambrook, 2005). There are three different level of learning that includes individual, team and organizational level and some factors that influence informal learning in workplace are work environment, social exchange and individual differences (Noe, Clarke, & Klein, 2014). According to Eraut and Hirsh (2010) informal workplace learning is influenced by individual factors, team level factors, line management roles, approaches to learn and development, organizational context, process and leadership behavior.

Park and McLean (2008) mentioned that a number of organizational factors and personal factors can largely influence the workplace learning. Some of these organizational factors include culture and environment (Billett, 2001; Ellinger, 2005; Sambrook & Stewart, 2000), job design and investment (Sambrook, 2005; Sambrook & Stewart, 2000), greater exposure to changes and demand (Skule, 2004; Weststar, 2009), learning opportunities

and participation (Billett, 2001; Clarke, 2005), human resource practices and development (Bednall & Sanders, 2016; Sambrook & Stewart, 2000), managerial responsibilities, extensive professional contract, superior feedback, management support for learning (Ashton, 2004; Skule, 2004), learning committed leadership and management, resource information (Ashton, 2004; Ellinger, 2005), technology (Sambrook, 2005), job challenge (Clarke, 2005), and guided learning at work (Billett, 2002). Personal factors include skills, attitudes, motivations (Sambrook, 2005), perceptions, commitment, communications and involvement (Clarke, 2005; Savolainen, 2000), rewards (Ashton, 2004; Skule, 2004), and people relationships for learning (Ellinger, 2005). Sambrook (2005) also argued for individual and organizational factors which can influence learning in workplace. Management support is the critical factors that enhance informal workplace learning (Ellinger, 2005; Sambrook & Stewart, 2000; Savolainen, 2000). In addition to that Park and McLean (2008) in their study mentioned that there are some organizational development interventions that influence informal learning such as strategic, techno structural, human process, and human resource interventions (Cummings & Worley, 2005).

Moreover, a number of studies mentioned that learning have supported by the person- in-situation perspective (e.g., Gully & Chen, 2010; Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011). Choi and Jacobs (2011) have identified that a supportive learning environment positively influence informal learning. Beyond that, psychological safety also directly and indirectly influence the learning (Kostopoulos & Bozionelos, 2011). Kostopoulos, Spanos, and Prastacos (2013) also explored that learning originated from

individual intuitions, intensified through integration and interpretation, and manifested itself at the team level through the codification of collective cognition and activity to affect group performance. In addition to that people learn in organization to fulfill their job demand. For example, Weststar (2009) found that job demand influence workplace learning. Indeed, organizational factor namely HRM practices, leadership style (Bednall et al., 2014; Froehlich et al., 2014) and personal factor namely affective commitment (Treuer et al., 2013) can greatly influence informal workplace learning . Through effective and efficient HRM practices, effective leadership implementation, an organization can motivate their employees to informal workplace learning.

2.3 Human Resource Management

The study focuses on the emerging concept and role of human resource management (HRM) in contemporary organization. There has been a shift in understanding of human resource management practices in organizations during the past two decades. The term human resource management is the management practices that help the organization to utilize human resources more efficiently in order to archive the organizational goals and objectives. More comprehensively, human resource management is the management practices which is related with procurement, maintenance and development of human resource to achieve the goals of the organization more effectively and efficiently. Basically, the functions of human resource management started with human resource planning followed by recruitment and selection, training, reward and compensation,

performance appraisal, job autonomy, personal empowerment, job security, health management and employee relations.

According to Jackson and Schuler (1995) human resource management could be defined as a process which attract, motivate, develop and retain employees in order to establish the successful functioning and subsistence of organization and its members. Human resource management practices are needed in all organizations for improving performance. For example, Mustafi, Rahman, and Jahan (2016) conducted a study in private commercial banks in Bangladesh and identify that human resource management practices namely, planning, acquisition, training, performance appraisal, compensation and job analysis are the key drivers of increasing individual skills and organizational performance. Earlier, Majumder (2012) and Khan (2015) also pointed out that human resource management practices such as compensation, training, promotion opportunity, and empowerment are the enabling drivers that can enhance employees' skills and organizational performance. Thus, human resource management practices in an organization are related with both individual and organizational outcomes.

2.3.1 Different Approaches of Human Resource Management Practices

Delery and Doty (1996) have identified three approaches of HRM practices which are used by different researchers in case of theorizing strategic human resource management (SHRM). The term 'universalist' is used by the first group of researchers while 'contingency' and 'configurational' is used by the second and third group of researchers

consecutively. The next section will discuss these three approaches of human resource management practices.

2.3.1.1 Universalistic Approach

Previously researchers found that certain practices of human resource management directly affect the employee and organizational outcomes. The universalistic approach of HRM is supported by a number of disciplines. For example, in micro economics, the theory of human capital predicts that people possess certain skills, abilities and knowledge that impart the economic value of the firm (Youndt, Snell, Dean, & Lepak, 1996). Basically the universalistic approach of human resource management is normative in nature. The theoretical foundation of universalistic approach of human resource management is basically the resource based view of organization which exhibits that human resource is one of the important resources of the organization because of its strategic characteristics (Barney, 1991). Particularly Guest (1997) stated that organization apply either set of values or best practices which ultimately indicates the best practice of HRM. It may assume that the relationship between specific independent and dependent variable is universal across the population of organizations (Delery & Doty, 1996). Basically they mentioned that there is a set of human resource management practices which are universally applicable in all organization. Previously researchers (e.g. Beh & Loo, 2013; Zacharatos et al., 2005) used universalistic approach in their study and pointed out that this approach is applicable in all types of organization. Therefore, the simplest form of strategic HRM practices is universalistic approach.

2.3.1.2 Contingency Approach

The contingency approach provides another way to increase performance of organization. Contingency approach suggests that, organization need to adapt human resource management practices as per their business strategy which they applied in their organization. That is why, contingency approach is also known as a strategic approach. According to Guest (1997) as a strategic theory contingency approach is concerned with the relationship between a number of possible external contingencies and human resource management practices and policies. Moreover, contingency approach explain the association between pertinent independent and dependent variable which vary for various levels of the critical contingency variable, basically for business strategy (Delery & Doty, 1996). They also stated that, by applying contingency approach organization can promote the behavior of employees which are consistent to their business strategies. Basically, in order to attain better performance of organization, it is essential for organization to attain fit between business strategy and human resource strategy. Previously, researchers such as Chang and Huang (2005) and Hoque (1999) used the contingency approach in their study and mentioned that contingency approach is applicable when organizational strategy match with human resource strategy. Therefore, this approach is complex because it requires fit between HRM practices and business strategy.

2.3.1.3 Configurational Approach

The configurational approach of human resource management practices is the combination of both external and internal fit which is found as a basement for increasing and maintaining organizational performance. Configurational theory is mainly descriptive in nature. Previously, literatures use this approach to explain HRM practices in an integrated and holistic way. The basic assumption of configurational approach is that, consistency within the configuration of HRM practices and consistency between the HRM practices and business strategy in order to increase organizational performance (Delery & Doty, 1996). That is why, it is essential for organization to develop HRM system which is internally congruent and consistent with other organizational characteristics. Previously researchers such as Huselid (1995), Ichniowski, Shaw, and Prennushi (1997) used configurational approach and pointed out that, this approach is applicable for explaining how the aspect of multiple independent variables are related to a dependent variable instead of how an individual independent variable is related with dependent variable. Therefore, configurational approach of strategic HRM specify that organization choose human resource practices that must be internally consistent and optimize the horizontal fit and then incorporate such system with other strategic configuration to amplify the vertical fit.

Based on the discussion of the three categories of approaches, the current study adopted the normative or universalistic approach in spite of discouraging and alarming findings of some authors such as Hiltrop (1996), Truss (2001), and Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-

Sánchez (2003). Universal approach of HRM practices considers a set of practices which are best in any situation irrespective of the pattern, culture and context and adoption of this approach produce superior outcome. Moreover, earlier studies such as the studies of Hughes (2002), Delery and Doty (1996) and Guest (1997) strongly support the universalistic approach of HRM. Especially, Delery and Doty (1996) found that, universalistic approach is better than other two approaches in case of enhancing skills of employees and developing organizational performance. Hughes (2002) also supported the findings of Delery and Doty (1996). He provided the argument in favor of universalistic approach. Therefore, the current study attempt to examine human resource management practices which is universal throughout the organization.

2.3.2 Human Resource Management Practices

The term human resource management practice can be defined as a set of interrelated practices that creates an environment to develop high commitment among the employees in order to learn informally in the workplace which in turn improves organizational performance. Previously, different researchers conducted study by considering a set of HRM practices and most of them agree that certain HRM practices are important for producing higher employee outcomes in organization. These practices include selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment and information sharing. Delery and Doty (1996) mentioned that, these HRM practices affect both financial and non-financial performance of organization.

Previously different learning institutions emphasis on the role of human resource management practices for enhancing employees learning in the workplace (Garavan, Gunnigle, & Morley, 2000; Mueller, 1996). Yet there is a lack of empirical study in this aspect. Garavan et al. (2000) and Sanders and Lin (2016) stated that, yet no initiative has been taken to justify properly the extent to which human resource practices and human resource development effort enhance learning. Ashton and Sung (2002) argued that, high performance work practices increase learning and skill development of employees. Similarly, Lopez, Peon, and Ordas (2005) and Camelo-Ordaz, Garcia-Cruz, Sousa-Ginel, and Valle-Cabrera (2011) identified that, high performance HRM practices are positively related with learning in workplace.

Moreover, Porter (1985) stated that, when employees are highly involved in organization they are committed to contribute more for the betterment of the organization. Based on the above discussion it can be argued that high performance human resource management practices can encourage employees to learn in the workplace and develop organizational performance.

2.3.3 High-Performance HRM Practices

During the last three decades a lot of organizations have changed their management practices to fulfill their business demand. Traditional management practices are no more effective to achieve competitive advantage. Recently, managers and employers realize that, traditional organizations which have bureaucratic hierarchical structure, top-down

relationship approach, narrower job classifications are no more effective in today's competitive environment and such organizations are going to adopt a new form of organizational practices which is known as high performance work practices (HPWP) (Kaman, McCarthy, Gulbro, & Tucker, 2001). It is the 'post-Taylorist' approach which denotes that organization employs a bundle of management practices that encourage the employees to perform their best in the organization and show their discretionary efforts.

Marin and Giner (2014) stated that, high performance human resource practices is a set of different but interdependent human resource practices that combines with select, retain develop and inspire employees not only for achieving better skills and abilities but also to apply these skills and abilities to their job more effectively. Earlier, Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, and Kalleberg (2000) suggested that, specific HRM practices can be considered as high performance HR practices which plays a vital role for increasing employee abilities, motivation and opportunity. Practices such as selective hiring, extensive training, enhance employee abilities, whereas compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, performance appraisal enhance motivation. Besides, empowerment and information sharing increasing opportunity that leads employees to show discretionary efforts (Appelbaum et al., 2000).

In addition, MacDuffie (1995) and Huselid (1995) provided the argument that, HRM practices can create better performance only when they fulfill three conditions such as when employees possess well developed skills, when employees are motivated to apply this skills and when opportunities are provided to employees to contribute their efforts.

These conditions are incorporated into high-performance HRM practices that leads to improve individual (Batt, 2002; Kehoe & Wright, 2013) operational (DeGeest, Follmer, & Lanivich, 2016; Esch et al., 2016; MacDuffie, 1995), firm level (Esch et al., 2016; Huselid, 1995) and supply chain (Fu, Flood, Bosak, Morris, & O'Regan, 2013) performance.

Besides, high performance HR practice is also characterized by an integrated task-related practices of which objective is to maximize the employees' feelings of involvement to their work which in turn increase employees commitment and organizational outcome (Bryson, Forth, & Kirby, 2005; Kehoe & Wright, 2013). These practices are also considered as innovative HRM practices (Ichniowski & Shaw, 1995), high-commitment practices (Roche, 1999; Wood & Albanese, 1995; Wood & De Menezes, 1998) and high-involvement management practices (Bryson et al., 2005; Guthrie, 2001; Rose & Kumar, 2006; Sanchez, Kraus, White, & Williams, 1999; Wood, 1999). Although a number of studies have conducted to recognize high performance HR practices (Boselie, Dietz, & Boon, 2005; Marin-Garcia & Conci, 2009; Posthuma, Campion, Masimova, & Campion, 2013) by using different terms, but there is a lack of consensus about the clear and precise definition on which distinct set of practices can be called as high performance HR practices (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006; Posthuma et al., 2013). Therefore, different authors use different terminology regarding High performance HR practices with its various outcomes as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Different Terminology Regarding High Performance HR Practices

High performance HR practices	Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, and Gould-Williams (2011), Kehoe and Wright (2013), Esch et al. (2016)
High performance work systems	Macky and Boxall (2007), Boselie (2010), Ang, Bartram, McNeil, Leggat, and Stanton (2013), Zhang, Zhu, Dowling, and Bartram (2013), Chiang, Hsu, and Shih (2015).
High involvement work systems	Mendelson, Turner, and Barling (2011), Chênevert, Jourdain, and Vandenberghe (2016)
High involvement HR practices	Grant and Wagar (2004), Paré and Tremblay (2007), Yang (2012), Shin, Jeong, and Bae (2016)
High commitment HR practices	Agarwala (2003), Gould-Williams et al. (2013), Gould-Williams (2004), Latorre, Guest, Ramos, and Gracia (2016)
High commitment performance management	Gould-Williams (2004), Gould-Williams et al. (2013), Agarwala (2003), Farndale, Hope-Hailey, and Kelliher (2011)

Besides different terminology, previously a number renowned scholars use different dimensions for explaining high performance HRM practices because there is no consensus regarding the dimensions or set of high performance HRM practices (Combs et al., 2006; Posthuma et al., 2013). Different dimensions of high performance HRM practices used by different scholars with its various outcomes in their studies are given in Table-2.2.

Table 2.2

Different Dimensions of High Performance HRM Practices

Authors	Dimensions of High-performance HRM practices
Huselid (1995)	Extensive recruitment, selection and training procedures, formal information sharing, attitude assessment, job design, grievance procedures, labour management participation programs, performance appraisal, promotion, incentive compensation systems.
Delery and Doty (1996)	Internal career opportunities, formal training systems, appraisal measures, profit sharing, employment security, voice mechanisms, job description.

Berg (1999)	Communication, employee-management relations, compensation contingent on performance, employee participation, employment security, extensive training, information sharing, self-managed teams
Wood (1999)	Employment security, extensive training, internal recruitment, job rotation, quality circles, selective hiring, self-managed teams.
MacDuffie (1995)	Communications, compensation contingent on performance, extensive training, job rotation, quality circles, reduced status distinctions, selective hiring, self-managed teams, total quality management.
Ichniowski et al. (1997)	Compensation contingent on performance, employee management relations, employment security, extensive training, grievance procedures, information sharing, job rotation, selective hiring and self-managed teams.
Paré and Tremblay (2007)	Recognition, empowerment, fair rewards, competence development, information sharing.
Bamberger and Meshoulam (2000)	Selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, promotion opportunity, employment security, reward, empowerment and information sharing.

The above dimensions are widely used in different human resource management research due to their significant role for achieving organizational goals and objectives (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Macky & Boxall, 2007).

According to Berg (1999) diversified HRM practices enhance employee experience at workplace. He also stated that, certain practices of HRM operate at the process level and certain practices of HRM operate at the environmental level of the workplace. Process level practices related to work process which provides the opportunities to the workers to make decision and enhance the output and quality of work. These practices include extensive training and self-directed teams. Other practices that are related to environmental level increase employees motivation to show the discretionary behavior and such practices include employment security, pay for performance and so on.

In addition to that, Paré and Tremblay (2007) identified that certain HRM practices influence the employee attitude and behavior which enhance different individual and organizational outcomes. They stated that HRM practices reduce employee turnover and increase organizational citizenship behavior of employees. They also pointed out that implementation of certain HRM practices may increase learning of employees in organization. Moreover, Ichniowski et al. (1997) conducted an empirical research on adoption of new HRM practices and found that certain HRM practices can be adopted only in the existence of other certain HRM practices. HRM practices might be applied as complimentary to each other. Wood and De Menezes (1998) accepted this finding and recommended that cluster of HRM practices may be grouped together and considered as unidimensional. Interestingly, Horgan and Mühlau (2006) conducted a study and found mix result about complementary hypothesis. Study result from Irish sample support complementary practices while study result from Dutch sample did not support the complementary practices because no difference has been found between complementary practices and other practices.

However, competitive advantage related with good HRM practices rather application of complementary HRM practices. Delery and Doty (1996) conducted a study on senior HR executives in the banking sector of USA where they support best practices of HRM. Therefore, distinct HR practices incorporated in high performance human resource system has been differed across the research and a commonality across the studies regarding high performance HR system is emphasized on enhancing employees ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Combs et al., 2006; Kehoe

& Wright, 2013) in order to demonstrate behavior relevant with organizational objectives.

Moreover, there is a lack of consensus on which specific practices of HRM are incorporated in high performance human resource practices. As a critics Becker and Gerhart (1996) stated that, it is very difficult to draw conclusion on which practices are considered as the best practices because there exists inconsistency on the specific practices used by different authors. Primarily the studies on best practice HR bundles considered under the preview of strategic human resource management because it focuses on predicting firm's financial as well as service performance (Delery & Doty, 1996). Jackson, Renwick, Jabbour, and Muller-Camen (2011) also supported that strategic HRM practices are considered as high performance HR practices.

More importantly, Pfeffer (1998) mentioned that high performance HRM practices such as selective hiring, extensive training, compensation based on performance, employment security, self-managed team, information sharing and reduced status distinction are important for encouraging employees to perform discretionary activities like sharing knowledge. Similarly Ashton and Sung (2002) also support Pfeffer (1998) and mentioned that performance appraisal, pay and information sharing motivate employees to learn in the workplace.

Based on the previous literature present study consider employee's perception toward particular outcome namely informal learning in workplace by the application of HRM practices that are commonly used by Delery and Doty (1996), Pfeffer (1998), Bamberger

and Meshoulam (2000) Sun, Aryee, and Law (2007), and Ashton and Sung (2002). Based on their study eight commonly used dimensions of high performance HRM practices (selective hiring, extensive training, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, performance appraisal, empowerment, and information-sharing) are chosen for this study as independent variables. These dimensions are most frequently used by different scholars for increasing employees' motivation, commitment, learning as well as increasing employees and organizational performance as shown in Appendix-A.

2.3.4 HRM Practices and Informal Workplace Learning

HRM practices are an important tool that integrates knowledge in organization and enhances employees' informal workplace learning. A mentionable number of scholars argued that, HRM practices enhance informal workplace learning of employees (Camps & Luna-Arocas, 2012; Chahal, Jyoti, & Rani, 2016; Hayton, 2003; McLean, 2006; Shipton, Budhwar, Sparrow, & Brown, 2016; Theriou & Chatzoglou, 2014). Theriou and Chatzoglou (2014) mentioned that, HRM practices can play a unique role for enhancing learning of employees which helps organization to achieve competitive advantage. Moreover, organization can apply a number of human resource practices that increase the knowledge-related performance of employees such as acquisition capabilities, performance management and so on (Minbaeva, 2005). Kuo (2011) pointed out that, personnel staffing, performance appraisal, reward and compensation, training and development and employee participation practices influence learning and knowledge

management capability. Similarly, Sanders and Lin (2016) stated that, a set of HRM practices such as selective hiring, extensive training, team work, compensation or reward, performance appraisal, job design are important for lubricating informal learning process in workplace and achieving competitive advantage. Hence, Kang, Snell, and Swart (2012) also pointed out that, human resource management have greater influence on workplace learning and promote learning in a greater extent. Therefore, human resource management practices are related with informal learning such as innovation, knowledge sharing, reflection, interaction and so on.

In addition to that Abdel-Qader and Al-Mahayreh (2015) and Thom-Otuya, Precious, and Aleelo (2014) identified that, HRM practices have significant impact on employees learning and development in workplace. HRM practices increase interaction among employees which in turn increase knowledge, skills and capabilities of employees (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Minbaeva, Pedersen, Björkman, Fey, & Park, 2003). Moreover, HRM practices can influence on knowledge acquisition, knowledge creation and knowledge transfer which are the main activities of informal learning in workplace. As a supportive factor, HRM can help employees to explore knowledge in organization (Iqbal, Toulson, & Tweed, 2011).

However, Clarke (2006) identified that contextual factors interrupt human resource management practices which is designed to support informal learning and suggested to consider contextual factors when discussing workplace learning. He mentioned that, if HRM policy is not properly implemented in organization it would be impossible for them

to support informal workplace learning. Similarly, Thompson and Heron (2005) and Camelo-Ordaz et al. (2011) argued that traditional HRM practices are not wholly appropriate for promoting creativity and autonomy needed for knowledge creation and innovation. Therefore, it necessary to identify alternative approaches in management of human resources in order to motivates people to share what they know and to participate actively in knowledge creation. Proper and effective human resource deployment enables organization to achieve the objectives of learning (Wright & McMahan, 1992).

For developing appropriate learning environment, a mentionable number of researchers emphasis on the necessity of ensuring effective human resource policy which provides supportive learning culture in the place of work (Beckett, 1999; Kops, 1993; Smith, 2001; Straka, 2000). For instance, Beckett (1999) mentioned that appropriate HR policy including appraisal, career planning, incentives, promotion, rewards, information sharing can influence learning in workplace. Moreover, Valle-Cabrera (2009) mentioned two features of HRM practices that can influence individual learning. First of all consider the knowledge-based human resource management system that emphasis on long-term commitment and internal development of employees to achieve valuable, significant and unique knowledge. Secondly, consider the integrated human resource management system that focuses on cooperation, group work and sharing information for enhancing knowledge. Particularly, these two features highly support the best practice of human resource management for informal workplace learning (Camps & Luna-Arocas, 2012).

However, human resource management practices influence informal workplace learning in an integrated way. To gain the objectives of informal workplace learning there is a need of integrated HR practices rather than single dimension of HR practices. Human resource management can immediately develop an organizational environment of self-renewal as well as indirectly increase positive attitude towards learning in workplace (Camps & Luna-Arocas, 2012; Jaw & Liu, 2003).

Recently, Hu, Wu, and Shi (2015) conducted a study on Chinese private sector for investigating the association between strategic HRM practices and employee learning in the workplace and identified that there is a significant positive relationship between strategic HRM practices and learning in workplace. They also stated that firms not only accept the individual HRM practices but also accept a set of HR practices for better learning in workplace. HRM practices such as selective staffing, internal mobility, clear job description, extensive training, employment security, participation and egalitarianism, incentive reward and results-oriented appraisal can improve employees' learning and develop their knowledge and skills. Likewise, Lopez et al. (2005) conducted a study on Spanish companies and identify that, there is a significant relationship between high performance HR practices and learning in organization. If the best HRM practices exist in an organization, learning and capabilities of employees will be stronger (Khandekar & Sharma, 2005; Zhai, Liu, & Fellows, 2014).

Moreover, high-performance HR practices can help employees in organization for generating knowledge through sharing ideas, opinions and experience (Chahal et al.,

2016; Monavvarian & Khamda, 2010). Human resource management practices can contribute to learning of employees in work organization by providing facilities needed for them (Barney, 1992; Reed & DeFillippi, 1990; Wright & McMahan, 1992).

After analyzing the literature related to HRM practices and learning in workplace it may be argued that HRM practices can encourage informal workplace learning of employees in organization. Such practices can also create favorable environment for employees to learn and improve performance. HRM practices include selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing which are considered as some of the practices of high performance organization suggested by Pfeffer (1998) in his high performance work practices, Delery and Doty (1996) in his strategic HRM practices, and adopted by different HRM scholars such as Bamberger and Meshoulam (2000), Guest, Michie, Conway, and Sheehan (2003) and Sun et al. (2007) etc. The next sections will explain each practice of HRM separately and how they relate to informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.1 Selective Hiring and Informal Workplace Learning

Generally, selective hiring indicates selecting the right people with expected knowledge, skill and attitudes (KSAs). Huselid (2010) stated that, selective hiring refers to the selection of appropriate people with the expected characteristics and knowledge, placed in right position, so that they can adjust in particular organizational setting. Through the

proper selection process, organization can select candidate who possess the right knowledge and skills and have strong desire to learn in workplace which in turn increase organizational learning capability (Hooi & Ngui, 2014; Jerez-Gomez, Céspedes-Lorente, & Valle-Cabrera, 2005). The objectives of any staffing campaign should be to allow those candidates who will best match with job and organizational setting. Selection of appropriate employees can decrease education and development cost of organization. Schuster (1986) mentioned that, selective hiring is one of the important practices that can generate profits. More particularly, Huselid (1995) investigated human resource practices of high performance organization and identified that attracting and selecting the appropriate candidates enhance employee productivity, improve organizational performance, and decrease turnover.

Paul and Anantharaman (2003) provided the opinion that, appropriate hiring ensure the existence of individual with appropriate qualifications that leads to the production of superior products and improve financial performance of organization. Organization should select those employees who will add the highest values for the organization. Likewise, Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (2003) mentioned that, organization should incorporate some yardstick into their selection processes such as attitudes of candidates towards work in a team, mutual adaptability in order to develop their social capital. Similarly, Wood and De Menezes (1998) argued that, social and team working skill should be an important criterion for selecting employees. Moreover, Wood and Albanese (1995) found that employee trainability and commitment is the important indicator for selecting employees. Trainability, interpersonal skill, team working, information sharing

and commitment increase the informal workplace learning of employees. Therefore, for the objectives of the current study, selective hiring indicates the selection procedure applied by the organization for selecting the applicants through the series of interviews and rigorous selection process (Pfeffer, 1998).

Davenport (2000) expressed significant concerns about HR practices for learning in workplace and emphasized on proper recruitment process. Swart and Kinnie (2010) pointed out that, better selection can enhance informal workplace learning. López et al. (2006) found that selective hiring influence learning in workplace positively. To enhance informal workplace learning, organization should select candidates who are capable to gather advanced knowledge and skills, endure the higher level of uncertainty and adjust with the changes within the context of organization (Dyer & Shafer, 1999). Moreover, Prieto and Perez-Santana (2014) determined that there is a significant association between selective hiring and innovative behavior of employees. If selection processes are sincerely completed and emphasis on choosing right candidates, it will enhance informal learning and innovative ideas of employees. Sustainable competitive advantage is possible through selecting and maintaining the qualified extra ordinary human expertise (Boxall, 1996).

More importantly, López-Cabrales et al. (2011) conducted a study on research and development department in Spain and found that selective hiring greatly affects the learning in workplace. Along with same line, Zhai et al. (2014) identified that, selective staffing is positively related to learning which is consistent with the findings of Chen and

Huang (2009). Therefore, in consistent with the previous research present study also expects the positive relation between selective hiring and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.2 Extensive Training and Informal Workplace Learning

Training is defined as an endeavor that provides opportunity for employees to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities that are directly and indirectly related to their current job. In the field of HRM practices, training has been considered as one of the important components that can influence learning and innovation of employees. Training programs provide platform for employees to interact and create knowledge sharing environment (Grimshaw & Miozzo, 2009; Pervaiz, Imran, Arshad, Haq, & Khan, 2016). Moreover, proper training programs are playing important role for achieving competitive advantages of organization (Schuler & MacMillan, 1984). According to Ahmad and Bakar (2003) training is a planned and systematic endeavor that modifies or develops knowledge, skills and attitude through learning experience and helps to accomplish task successfully. Training is included in high performance HRM practices in organization that enhance employees skill and performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995).

Extensive training is a key factor related to the enhancement of informal workplace learning (Chahal et al., 2016). It mainly focuses on overall development of employees through sharing knowledge and experiences. Besides, it also provides clear idea about company's goals and objectives and right direction for learning (Chahal et al., 2016; López et al., 2006). Moreover, training programs motivates employees to share their

experience, generate new knowledge and utilize the gained knowledge to their business growth (Aragón, Jiménez, & Valle, 2014).

Basically, proper training and development enhance opportunity for employees to learn in workplace. After receiving formal training employees can share their learning with other employees and apply their knowledge in the practical field. In this way training enhances informal learning. In addition to that, cross-training is helpful to develop learning process in organization (Leshner & Browne, 1993). In order to encourage employees to learn, organization should invest in training (Raj & Srivastava, 2013). Tsai and Tai (2003) mentioned that, training is the way to help employees to achieve required skills and knowledge in order maintain the standard performance in competitive dynamic environment.

More importantly, Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) conducted a study in Spanish companies and found that extensive training significantly influence learning in workplace. Similarly, Zhai et al. (2014) identified that, training is positively related with learning which is consistent with the findings of Chen and Huang (2009). On other hand, Donate and Guadamillas (2015) conducted a study on Spanish company and found that, knowledge oriented HRM practices such training is negatively related with innovation as a process of learning. However, Bednall et al. (2014) found the modest and positive effects of training on employee innovative behavior as well as learning. Moreover, training enhances employees learning capabilities and provides direction to achieve competency at work (Liu, 2004; Paré, Tremblay, & Lalonde, 2000). Indeed, training

enhances informal learning in workplace. Therefore in line with the previous research present researcher also expects the positive relationship between training and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.3 Performance Appraisal and Informal Workplace Learning

The term performance appraisal can be defined as managerial function that evaluates the performance of employees periodically in order to improve human resources within the organization. Basically immediate supervisor assess the subordinate's performance periodically. Performance appraisal is important in human resource management practices (Boswell & Boudreau, 2002) and it related with the whole set of organization (Den Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, 2004). According to Kuvaas (2006) performance appraisal is a mechanism for stimulating, developing, and retaining employees in organization. Employees' learning in workplace is related with performance appraisal because learning occurs when employees feel that their changing is required in order to achieve their goals and objectives.

According to Selvarajan and Cloninger (2012) organizations should 'use systematic feedback based performance appraisals which is specifically related to learning and knowledge sharing and development of employees. For better learning feedback based performance appraisal is needed because through feedback employees can aware about their errors and learn more for future corrections (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013). Employees are encouraged to share their knowledge when feedback exists (Foss,

Minbaeva, Pedersen, & Reinholt, 2009). Therefore, for the objective of current study, performance appraisal refers to the process of assessing performance of employees, communicating information with them and seeking the way to increase their performance which ultimately encourages employees to learn in the workplace and achieve individual and organizational goal.

Performance appraisal is related to employees' retention, turn over and learning. Effective performance appraisal encourages employees to learn informally in workplace and improving performance. On the other hand, ineffective performance appraisal insists employees to leave the organization. In addition, performance appraisal increase commitment of employees towards organization by creating the perceptions that they are valuable in organization (Levy & Williams, 2004). Similarly, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) argued that employee's perception of fair performance appraisal is associated with employees' attitude and behavior which includes organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intension and trust. Moreover, performance appraisal may affect the attitude of employees to learn in workplace. Systematic and efficient performance appraisal is relevant for managing knowledge (Selvarajan & Cloninger, 2012; Ulrich, Jick, & Von Glinow, 1993).

Bednall et al. (2014) found the positive relationship between performance appraisal and innovative behavior as an informal learning. In addition to that, Zhai et al. (2014) identified that performance appraisal positively influence learning which is consistent with the findings of Chen and Huang's (2009). Moreover, performance appraisal is also

positively related with knowledge sharing, knowledge transfer and other informal learning of employees (Lopez-Cabrales, Pérez-Luño, & Cabrera, 2009; Pervaiz et al., 2016). Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between performance appraisal and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.4 Compensation Practices and Informal Workplace Learning

Compensation is considered as one of the important elements of HRM practices that enhance informal workplace learning. The objective of compensation policy is to attract, retain and motivate employees to stay in organization (Wei, Han, & Hsu, 2010) and to learn in the workplace (Swart & Kinnie, 2010). Compensation based on skill reinforces employees attitude such as organizational commitment to learn in workplace (Chia, Yahya, & Yean, 2016; Lipshitz, Popper, & Friedman, 2002). Compensation practices in this study refers to all kinds of direct and indirect financial payment provided by the organization to their employees for the work done by them (Desseler, 2013; Tessema & Soeters, 2006).

Compensation package includes all forms of financial incentives such as salary, performance reward, bonuses, commission, employer paid insurance facility, transportation allowance, medical allowance, increment, vacation allowance and so on. Attractive compensation practices motivate employees to share their knowledge with coworkers and others in organization (Chahal et al., 2016; Ipe, 2003; Zárraga & Bonache, 2003). When organization provides incentive for knowledge sharing then employees

involved in experimentation and learning (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013; Pervaiz et al., 2016). According to Hassan, Toylan, Semerciöz, and Aksel (2012) reward based compensation is more important for informal learning such as knowledge sharing because employees feel better if they are appreciated by organization for their work.

In addition, Laursen and Foss (2013) pointed out that, performance-related pay have significant impact on innovation as informal learning. Along with the same line, Sanders and Lin (2016) argued that performance-based pay is positively related with informal workplace learning. Moreover, Organization which emphasis on learning, guides its employees to learn and communicate information and provides reward for successful learning (Mills & Friesen, 1992). In addition to that, different forms of benefits also enhance employees' attitude towards transferring knowledge and skills (Lei, Slocum, & Pitts, 1999; Lepak & Snell, 1999). Moreover, Jerez-Gomez et al., (2005) mentioned that, incentives based compensation is positively related with learning in workplace.

Previously researchers identified that, the relationship between extrinsic reward and employees' knowledge sharing is insignificant because reward contains an unspoken threat of punishment. Donate and Guadamillas (2015) conducted a study on Spanish company and identified knowledge oriented HRM practices such a reward is negatively related with innovation as a process of informal learning. But a number of researcher found that there is a positive association between compensation based on performance and knowledge sharing of employees (Bock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee, 2005; Swart & Kinnie, 2010). Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) conducted a study in Spanish companies and

found that compensation is significantly positively associated with learning in workplace. In addition to that Zhai et al. (2014) identified that selective reward based compensation is positively related with learning which is consistent with the findings of Chen and Huang (2009). Moreover, Chia et al. (2016) conducted a study on some multinational companies in Malaysia and identified that incentive is positively related with learning. Therefore, in line with the previous research present researcher also expects the positive association between compensation practices and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.5 Employment Security and Informal Workplace Learning

Generally employment security refers to the system which ensures stable employment for employees. According to Zacharatos et al. (2005), employment security refers to the practices of providing stable employment for employees. Through employment security employees perceive that there is a less probability of their laid off during the period of financial difficulty, or due to the whimsical behavior of their supervisor.

Employment security is particularly important for enhancing employees informal workplace learning (Lipshitz, Friedman, & Popper, 2006). Chen, Hsu, Wang, and Lin (2011) mentioned that, employment security influence employees' informal workplace learning such as knowledge sharing, information communicating etc. Chung and Van Oorschot (2010) pointed out that, when employees feel that their job is secured they involved in more informal workplace learning. Similarly, Kohlrausch and Rasner (2014)

conducted a study in Germany and identified that job security affect learning of employees in workplace.

On the other hand, downsizing and outsourcing damage informal workplace learning because it reduces psychological safety of employees. Employees feelings of job insecurity leads them to leave the organization which is harmful for it (Fisher & White, 2000; Lei & Hitt, 1995). Moreover, individuals stop their learning and sharing knowledge with other employees when they feel fear about losing their job (Michailova & Husted, 2003; Riege, 2005). Employees believes that job insecurity is highly related with feelings of powerlessness and loss of control (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). Moreover, employment security increases the feelings of belongingness and decreases the frustration, anxiety and burnout. Indeed, employment security is knowledge optimizing human resource management practices that enhance learning (Oltra & Alegre, 2011). Jung (2014) identified that the positive relationship between employment security and innovation of employees. Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between employment security and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.6 Promotion Opportunity and Informal Workplace Learning

Promotion is the formal recognition of employees' ability and performance within the organization. According to Tan (2008) promotion refers to the formal acknowledgement and appreciation of one's performance by the top management. Promotion is the

attainment of employees proven performance which leads them to the success of their career (Kim, 2005; Tan, 2008). Basically, Promotion encourages employees to learn informally in workplace and increases their efforts to the betterment of organization. More comprehensively, promotion is the formal recognition of performance by the management that helps employees to enhance their networking and performs better in organization (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989; Tan, 2008; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Therefore, promotion opportunity in the current study refers to the opportunities of employees' to be fairly promoted from current position to desired potential position within the organization.

Promotion opportunity increases employees' willingness to learn informally in workplace because promotion has demonstration effect. Promotion also encourages employees to spontaneously communicate with others in organization for sharing information and ideas. Moreover, promotion generates employees commitment which leads to learning and performance (Guest, 2002; Tan, 2008). Whenever the employees are given the promotion opportunity their motivation and commitment will be increased which ultimately leads them to learn informally in the workplace (Chia et al., 2016). Moreover, promotion opportunity is one of the skill enhancing HRM practices as like as training and performance appraisal which significantly influence employee attitudes and behavior (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Wayne et al., 1997). Employees intended to leave the organization when meaningful promotion opportunities are absent (Masum, Azad, & Beh, 2016; Miller & Wheeler, 1992).

Camelo-Ordaz et al. (2011) identified that, human resource management practices including promotion opportunity positively influence knowledge sharing as a process of informal learning. On the other hand, Donate and Guadamillas (2015) conducted a study on Spanish company and identified that promotion opportunity is negatively related with innovation as a process of informal learning. Moreover, Masum et al. (2016) argued that, promotion opportunity provides employees' satisfaction and decrease the employees' turnover in organization. Employees can contribute to organization through their involvement and commitment when they feel they are valued (Blau, 1964). Indeed, promotion opportunity encourages employees to involve in informal workplace learning. Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between promotion opportunity and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.7 Empowerment and Informal Workplace Learning

Generally, empowerment means empowering employees in an organization. Empowerment refers to the organizational initiative which helps employees to develop their self-confidence, remove their sense of powerlessness and encourage them to perform their job more effectively and efficiently. Empowerment can play a significant role for enhancing employees learning in organization. It provides autonomy, freedom, self-determination, responsibility and authority to employees in their job (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014) which in turn generates a positive attitude towards informal learning in workplace. Empowering in decision-making motivates employees to

bring new ideas and exchange knowledge with each other, which in turn increases the business performance.

Empowerment emphasized on employees participation and involvement in decision making which increases commitment, trust and understanding and leads to organizational success (Lieberman, 1995; Rezaie & Bagheri, 2014). More specifically, empowerment is one of the important factors that influence employees learning in workplace (Bhaskar & Mishra, 2010). Through empowerment employees can identify their own development needs in organization which encourage them to learn continuously in workplace (Garvin, 1993). In fact, empowered employees working for establishing continuous learning culture and developing knowledge, skills and abilities through continuous learning (Sanchez et al., 1999).

A number of studies found that there is an affirmative relationship between employees empowerment in organization and informal workplace learning (Allahyari, Mirkamali, & Kharazi, 2011; Darvish & Norozi, 2011; Safari, Haghighi, Rastegar, & Jamshidi, 2011). Empowerment encourages employees to learn in workplace that leads to continuous expansion and growth of organization (Smith, 1997; Tseng & McLean, 2008). Moreover, Jaw and Liu (2003) conducted a study on Taiwanese firms and identify that empowerment is positively related with employee attitude towards learning and self modification. An organization which is fully empowered that provides resources and supports to its employees in order to promote continuous learning (Argyris, 1998; Rezaie & Bagheri, 2014). Indeed, empowerment not only grants power to its employees but also

provides opportunity for learning and development which leads better organizational result. Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between empowerment and informal workplace learning.

2.3.4.8 Information Sharing and Informal Workplace learning

In information-based society, sharing information is essential at all levels of organization for its effective functioning. An organization which emphasize on proper exchanged of information demonstrate larger scale of productivity and growth (Darr, Argote, & Epple, 1995; Vlachos, 2009). Information sharing also helps employees to develop their knowledge and skills. Moreover, sharing information is vital for informal workplace learning without which achievement of competitive advantage is not possible.

Previously researchers pointed out that, information sharing practices provides opportunity to employees for internalization of organizational goals where employees feels valued by organization and develops their knowledge and skills for organizational success (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rodwell, Kienzle, & Shadur, 1998). Further, it also recognized that sharing information is necessary for informal workplace learning (Chahal et al., 2016; Lopez et al., 2005). Information sharing in the current study refers to two way communication process through which management can share information about strategy, operational measures and financial performance with employees whereas employees can share information with management about their daily activities.

Information sharing can enhance employees learning in workplace through exchanging views and ideas among employees, managers and supervisors.

In addition to that, information sharing is one of the most effective and easiest way to increase employees involvement within organization (Lawler, 1986). Information sharing also influence employees attitudes and commitment (Eisenberg, Monge, & Miller, 1983). Ichniowski and Shaw (2003) mentioned that, information sharing encourages employees' to involve in decision making process through exchanging information about their daily activities. Pfeffer (1998) argued that, information shared by the management may help employees to successfully perform their job because they might be aware about the organizational requirements. Information sharing leads to higher productivity and profitability and reduce labor cost (Morishima, 1991; Vlachos, 2009). Whenever, management shares information with employees, it indicates that managers are open with employees and inspiring them to exchange information with each other. If the information sharing environment prevails in organization, it will enhance employee attitudes towards informal workplace learning.

Moreover, informal workplace learning is a social context where learning occurs through collaboration, mutual problem solving and information sharing (Zhao & Kemp, 2013). Information sharing can highly influence informal learning through exchanging new knowledge and ideas. According to Huber (1991) information distribution is a function of dissemination which influences the informal learning process and increase the breadth of learning. Similarly Nonaka, Takeuchi, and Umemoto (1996) stated that, information

sharing is the central activity of informal workplace learning that take place primarily through interaction and dialogue. Subsequently, Hsu (2006) identified that, high performance company's top management creates information sharing environment in workplace through information disclosure. Most of the knowledge based and service based organizations management are giving emphasize on information sharing with employees which encourages employees to exchange their innovative ideas and learning with management and their colleagues.

Moreover, Ellinger and Cseh (2007) argued that, existence of open communication and information sharing is the basic condition of informal learning through which employees can communicate with their peers, subordinates and supervisors. They added that, through information sharing employees can solve problems collaboratively, interact effectively with other colleagues and give and receive collegial feedback. More importantly, Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) conducted a study in Spanish companies and identified that, sharing information is positively related with learning in workplace. Indeed, information sharing is necessary for knowledge transfer, knowledge sharing and other types of learning in organization. Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between information sharing and informal workplace learning.

2.4 Concept of Leadership

The most influential person in an organization is the leader (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996) because leader is expected to make decision on the basis of policies and procedures of organization which may affects at all levels of organization (Eberlin & Tatum, 2008). It is a key factor that assists organization to achieve effectiveness and efficiency in their operations (Greenberg & Baron, 1997). Leadership is also important to enhance knowledge and skills of employees in organization. Without proper leadership an organization would be stagnant, sluggish, and may not run properly (Daft, 2008).

2.4.1 Definitions of Leadership

Generally, leadership is the process of influencing followers by inducing, encouraging and helping them to achieve the objectives of the organization. According to Yukl (2002) the term leadership is the process of inducing followers to comprehend and accept what requires to be performed and in which way it can be performed more efficiently as well as helping them as individual and groups in order to achieve common objectives. Similarly, Tolbert and Hall (2009) mentioned that, leadership is the way of motivating followers to achieve the desirable outcome which is expected by leaders. In addition, Burns (1978) and Prewitt (2003) explored that, the role of leader is to give the direction and show the path to their followers towards achieving desired outcomes.

2.4.2 Types of Leadership Style

The main concept of leadership is influence. Leadership is basically an individual in a group who uses power and influence to guide other member's actions in order to achieve objectives (Colquitt et al., 2009). According to Cummings et al. (2010) leader's influence concentrates on two focuses. These are focus on task and focus on people. A leader who concentrates only on goal achievement, he/she is possessed task focused leadership style. On the contrary, a leader who emphasized on relationship with followers, he/she is said to have people-focused leadership style. Studies on leadership have generally observed leadership traits and personality such as , knowledge, intelligence, democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire (Bass, 1990; Greenberg & Baron, 1997); situational leadership such as path-goal leadership and leader-member exchange (Fiedler, 1970; Gómez & Rosen, 2001; House, 1996); as well as leadership power such as transformational, transactional, charismatic and empowering (Bass, 1985; Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010). Cummings et al. (2010) stated that, all these leadership styles can be categorized into two main form namely task-focused leadership and people-focused leadership. The next sections will discuss task-focused leadership and people-focused leadership style.

2.4.2.1 Task-Focused Leadership Style

Task-focused leadership style involve transactional leadership, contingent reward, management-by-exception, autocratic leadership, path-goal leadership behavior and laissez-faire leadership style. Transactional leadership states that, there is a give and take

exchange relationship between leader and subordinates (Colquitt et al., 2009; Daft, 2008). Contingent reward indicates leader's action of rewarding or punishing subordinates as a consequence of their attitudes and accomplishment (Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Management-by-exception includes leader monitoring and maintaining task execution by either correcting the problem before it happens or correcting the problem when it appears (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). An autocratic leader neither allows nor involves subordinates in decision making. An authoritarian leader focuses on control, providing direction and guiding followers' attitudes (Luthans, 2008). A laissez-faire leader confers full power to followers and let followers to make their own decisions (Luthans, 2008). Such kind of leadership generally provides little help and support to employees. A directive path-goal leaders purpose is to attain goal where the leader determined the expectation, organized and direct employees to achieve the goals and as in turn provides rewards to employees (House, 1996). However, transactional leadership style is the main representative of task-focus leadership style and expresses the full range of task-focus leadership style (Bass, 1985). In addition to that, Bass and Avolio (1990) in his multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) to measure the full range of leadership considers only transactional leadership style from task focus category. Moreover, previous researches indicated that among all these task-focused leadership style transactional leadership style is most closely related with learning (Lang, 2013; Bernsen, Segers, & Tillema, 2009). Therefore, the current study focuses on transactional leadership style among all the task-focused leadership style to enhance learning.

2.4.2.2 People-Focused Leadership Style

Leadership styles that focus on people and relationship include transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, servant leadership, empowering leadership, leader-member exchange leadership, democratic leadership, and participative leadership. Transformational leader encourages followers to do more than expected, considers employee's emotion and pays attention to employee's concern (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Charismatic leader instigates followers to do work on shared vision, provides direction and assistance to subordinates, and improve their self-awareness and self-observation (Den Hoogh et al., 2004; Luthans, 2008). Servant leadership basically emphasized on employees where a servant leader works and satisfies employees' needs and gives support to them (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). Empowering leader gives power to followers in decision making and shares organizational assets with them (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009). Leader-member exchange leadership indicates the exchange relationship between leader and followers where the leader and subordinates have mutual obligation, trust and respect (Mueller & Lee, 2002; Piccolo, Bards, Mayer, & Judge, 2008). Democratic leader considers employee's ideas and suggestions regarding decision-making process but the ultimate decision still stand with the leader.

On the other hand, participative leader invites followers to provide ideas and suggestions and allow them to participate in decision-making process. Participative leader makes decision jointly with employees. However, transformational leadership style is the main

representative of people-focus leadership style and expresses the full range of people-focus leadership style (Bass, 1985). In addition to that, Bass and Avolio (1990) in his multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) to measure the full range of leadership considers only transformational leadership style from people focus category. Moreover, previous studies indicated that among all the people focused leadership style transformational leadership play the most important role to enhance learning in workplace through its characteristics (Coad & Berry, 1998; Hasson et al., 2016). Therefore, current study focused on transformational leadership style from people-focus leadership style.

Moreover, there is no single model that can express whole leadership style. However, Bass and Avolio (1990) developed the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) to measure the full range of leadership. This covers three style of leadership namely transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. It is a full range of leadership model which permits observation across the whole spectrum of behaviors that can be expected from leaders. But laissez-faire leadership style is considered as a leadership style which often refers to the absence of leadership. It is passive leadership style that beliefs the avoidance of intervention with workers when fixed procedures are acting and achievement criteria are being fulfilled (Geyery & Steyrer, 1998). Tasks are divided among the subordinates with few instructions. Therefore, Bass (1985) stated that, laissez-faire leadership style means lack of leadership existence. The multifactor leadership questionnaire covers both the aspect of task-focus leadership style and people focus leadership style. Despite transformational and transactional leadership style

originated from distinct constructs, transformational and transactional leadership style represent the full range of leadership model (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational and transactional leadership style involves universal approaches to leadership (McCleskey, 2014). Bass (2000) stated that, as a full range of leadership style model transactional and transformational leadership style contributes learning in organization. Therefore, the current study considers multifactor leadership questionnaire for explaining leadership. The next section will discuss detail about transformational and transactional leadership style.

2.4.2.3 Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leader is a person who takes initiative for greater improvement of followers through changing their needs, beliefs, values and attitudes and encouraging them to develop creative and innovative ideas for future potentials by providing a vision (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership style encourages followers to perform beyond their expectations through developing their consciousness regarding priority of goals and the path of attaining the goal. In addition to that, transformational leader inspires followers to work for group interest rather than personal interest and stimulates them for self-actualization over the need for safety and security. Koehler and Pankowski (1997) stated that, transformational leadership indicates the process of stimulating transmission and empowering subordinates in order to attain the highest prominence. Such leader also motivates followers for individual and organizational development.

Moreover, transformational leadership style is the process which influences organizational members for changing their attitudes and assumptions and developing commitment for organization's strategies, mission and objectives (Burns, 1978; Yukl, 1998). Such type of leadership do more for subordinates, colleagues and followers than establishing simple agreement or exchanges (Bass, 1998). In addition to that, transformational leader always act as a role model for encouraging subordinates and stimulating them intellectually, motivating through inspiration and providing individualized influence in order to achieve needs and goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Bass and Avolio (1994) mentioned that, transformational leadership style can be characterized through 4 I'S such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration. First of all, idealized influence related with leaders' charisma. In the organization leaders are trusted and appraised and act as a role models to the followers (Bass et al., 2003). Particularly, Bass (1988) stated that charisma is the ability to create strong emotions in the minds of followers. Charismatic leaders have strong conviction and are confident in them and induce passion in their followers, considers the group members' demand before their own and exchange risk with group members (Bass et al., 2003). Secondly, through inspirational motivation leader can encourage followers but it is not only option (Bryman, 1992). For inspiring followers leaders can use different devices such as symbols, cultural icons and body language. Moreover, inspirational motivation encourages employees to perform more than expected outcome. Thirdly, leaders apply intellectual stimulation to teach subordinates regarding how to address the present propositions, expectations and values

in order to adopt innovative techniques and developing outcomes (Bass, 1985). Finally, through individualized consideration members of a team gets individualized consideration and understand that they have a personal link with leader and believed that leader will consider their exclusive needs. Through individualized consideration, comparatively inferior skilled members are getting close supervision while better experienced members are getting desire degree of autonomy and responsibility (Bass et al., 2003).

Transformational leadership style can facilitate employees' informal workplace learning through these four characteristics. LeBrasseur, Whissell, and Ojha (2002) explored that, creating and sharing vision is a challenge for organization and suggested that, transformational leadership style is needed for creating and sharing vision and stimulating informal learning in workplace. Organization through its transformational leadership style can ensure learning opportunities for employees' and develop intra-group learning among employees (Bhat, Rangnekar, & Barua, 2013). In fact, transformational leadership is a such type of leadership who direct and encourage followers towards informal workplace learning (Avolio, 1999; Sosik & Jung, 2010).

2.4.2.4 Transactional Leadership Style

The concept of transactional leadership style is based on exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 1994). According to Northouse (2010) transactional leadership refers to the leadership style where collective exchange takes

place between leader and followers and which bring a common benefit to them. The main basis of transactional leadership is contingent relationship which indicates that punishment and reward is contingent upon performance. Therefore contingent reward is the vital component of transactional leadership style.

Transactional leader provides reward to subordinates according to the response of their performance (Bass, 1985). The main concept is that subordinates will be positively rewarded if they achieved standard set of performance. On the contrary, subordinates will be punished if they fails to achieve desired level of performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In essence, transactional leaders refers to leaders who emphasized on improving efficiency of well-established procedure, exchange reward when performance objective are accomplished, monitoring mistakes and error actively and interfering only if established standard are failed to meet (Colquitt et al., 2009; Hitt, Miller, & Colella, 2006).

There are three components of transactional leadership style namely contingent reward, active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception (Colquitt et al., 2009; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Contingent reward indicates leadership behavior which clearly clarifies the roles and expectations of subordinates and promises rewards if the objectives are accomplished. Active management-by-exception refers to the degree in which a leader actively and strictly monitors subordinate's errors and mistakes, make sure subordinates are stick to rules and standard, punish them if the standards are not met, and take corrective action before problems arise. Passive management-by-exception

refers to the leader who waits for problem to arise and then go for corrective action. Transactional leadership can play an important role to enhance informal learning by incorporating new learning methods, innovative ideas, updated knowledge into work routine and institutionalizing and refining existing knowledge (Vera & Crossan, 2004). In fact, transactional leader can influence followers to learn in workplace.

2.4.3 Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

One of the important organizational factors is leadership style that influence informal workplace learning and skill development of employees (Berson et al., 2006; Froehlich et al., 2014; García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo, & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, 2012; Hasson et al., 2016). Earlier literature on leadership discloses that, there are a number of studies on measurement of leadership but the association between leadership style and workplace learning has seldom been studied (Chau, 2008; Hashim, 2013). Researchers have argued that there is a strong link between leadership style and knowledge creation (Kumar et al., 2013a). Leadership develops a process which facilitates individual and group learning and achieve collective objectives of organization (Berson et al., 2006; Hasson et al., 2016). Researchers have also been suggested that, leadership style can directly and indirectly influence informal learning in workplace (Froehlich et al., 2014; Hasson et al., 2016; Yukl, 2009). Moreover, Leadership through their direct and indirect effect and communication with employees create favorable atmosphere for informal workplace learning.

Furthermore, leadership constitutes organizational policies that inspire employees to involve in all modes of learning. It is the responsibility of leaders to integrate informal learning in workplace. Leadership provides common purpose and shared understanding through which it facilitates informal learning. In addition to that, leadership can enhance employees' developmental readiness, capability and inspiration for learning through their influential functions. Besides, leadership also provides structure of learning networks that can help to disseminate and institutionalize learning and creates new knowledge (Hannah & Lester, 2009; Hasson et al., 2016). Throughout the learning process, leadership provides directions needed to move across the boundaries and incorporate what is needed to learn. Indeed, leadership accumulates necessary resources and provides contextual support to subordinates for learning informally in workplace.

Both transformational and transactional leadership style can influence learning (Bucic, Robinson, & Ramburuth, 2010). Transformational leadership style can enhance informal workplace learning through their intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, idealized influence (Coad & Berry, 1998; Hasson et al., 2016). On the other hand, transactional leadership style can also enhance informal workplace learning through its characteristics.

2.4.3.1 Transformational Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

Transformational leadership style can play an important role for enhancing informal workplace learning. A number of studies provided the argument that transformational

leadership style facilitates learning in workplace (Crawford, 2005; Farrell, 2000; Hetland, Skogstad, Hetland, & Mikkelsen, 2011; Johnson, 1998; Kurland, Peretz, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010; Montes, Moreno, & Morales, 2005; Naot, Lipshitz, & Popper, 2004; Singh, 2008) and it is considered as one of the vital factors that increase individual learning in the workplace (Amitay, Popper, & Lipshitz, 2005; García-Morales et al., 2012). Singh (2008) and Jogulu (2011) provided the argument that, transformational leadership style can enhance workplace learning. Similarly, Kouzes and Posner (1993) argued that, transformational leadership style facilitates the learning of employees in workplace and develop environment for informal learning. In addition to that Coad and Berry (1998) and Popper and Lipshitz (2000) revealed that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and learning in workplace.

Transformational leadership style also influence individual perceptions of informal learning in workplace. There are number of evidence that transformational leadership style influence employees' perceptions of informal learning in workplace. Camps and Rodríguez (2011) found that, transformational leadership style can increase follower's ability to learn in the workplace and increase perceptions to learn more in organization. Similarly Loon, Lim, Lee, and Tam (2012) explored that, there is a positive association between transformational leadership style and individual learning in workplace. They explained that transformational leadership style is needed for high learning orientation of employees in workplace. Likewise, Froehlich et al. (2014) conducted a study on Australian bank managers and identified that transformational leadership style is positively related with deep learning of followers. Mutahar, Rasli, and Al-Ghazali (2015)

and Alsalam, Behery, and Abdullah (2014) identified that transformational leadership style is positively related with workplace learning and employee performance in organization.

Moreover, transformational leadership helps employees to increase their creativity and innovativeness. García-Morales, Lloréns-Montes, and Verdú-Jover (2008) and Jung, Wu, and Chow (2008) argued that, transformational leadership style is significantly related with informal workplace learning and innovation. Accordingly, Afsar et al. (2014) performed a study on transformational leadership and innovative work behavior as an informal workplace learning and found that positive relationship exist between transformational leadership style and employee innovative work. In addition, Bass (2000) recognized that, transformational leader consults with their followers in order to facilitate informal workplace learning. Moreover, transformational leadership style enhance the learning and innovation of employees in organization (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Jung et al., 2008; Zahay & Handfield, 2004). Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between transformational leadership style and informal workplace learning.

2.4.3.2 Transactional Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

Transactional leadership is responsible for setting, clarifying and communicating objective to their subordinates and exchanging relationship with them. Generally, transactional leadership style enhances informal workplace learning through rewards and

sanction. For example: Bock and Kim (2002) and Rawung, Wuryaningrat, and Elvinita (2015) explained that, the practices of rewards and sanctions are common for companies to encourage learning and knowledge sharing. This argument can be stated as the relationship between teacher and student. When a student get homework from a teacher then he completes it for avoiding penalty and getting better score while he might be penalized if he fails to complete his assigned work. Similarly, in organization, when employees develop their knowledge and skills they will be rewarded otherwise they will be punished.

Transactional leadership style enhances employees' informal workplace learning by clarifying performance expectations and obligations and provides rewards when the expected level of performance is attained. such leader also helps to enhance informal learning by incorporating new learning methods, innovative ideas, updated knowledge into work routine and institutionalizing and refining existing knowledge creation processes (Vera & Crossan, 2004). Moreover, transactional leadership style can encourage employees to create and manage knowledge and helps to modify the behavior.

Jansen, Vera, and Crossan (2009) stated that, at the times of stability transactional leadership style is better which have a positive effect on learning. The role of transactional leadership style regarding facilitating feedback learning is crucial because such leader ensures that organization's processes are continuously updated, new knowledge are introduced and institutionalized and organization successfully maintaining its competitive advantage. Bryant (2003) also argued that, transactional leadership have

significant effect on exploiting and enhancing knowledge. This indicates that, such leader not only incorporating and institutionalizing updated or new knowledge into the organization's current processes but also transforming knowledge into revenue-producing products and services.

Moreover, Bernsen et al., (2009) conducted a study in hospitality industry and identified that transactional leadership style is significantly positively related with disorganized learning. Such learning is important at the time of changes when new knowledge put into practices. Thus, transactional leadership style facilitates learning by clarifying expectations and rewarding followers for fulfilling the desired standards of performance. Therefore, in line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning.

2.5 Concept of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment (OC) is one of the important factors that contribute employees' outcome and organizational performance in a greater extent. Previous studies provided the views that, committed employees can contribute more positively to organization than less committed employees (Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993). Coopey (1995) stated that, OC is considered as an exchange of agreement between employees and organization. According to Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) and Porter, Crampon, and Smith (1976) organizational commitment is considered as comparative strength of an individual's identification with and engagement in specific organization. Similarly, Imran

and Ahmed (2012) viewed that, organizational commitment is the strength of an individual's identification and engagement with a distinct organization. But the strength of relationship differs as per the perceptions of employees about organizational change. Therefore, organization commitment indicates individuals' strengths of identification and involvement with the organization.

2.5.1 Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Previously a number of studies conceptualized organizational commitment as uni-dimensional and considered as emotional attachment with organization (e.g., Brown, 1996; Mowday et al., 1979). In contrast, various authors studied it from multidimensional construct and various alternative models were developed in this aspect (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Penley & Gould, 1988). The most popular and dominant conceptualization in this regard is developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). This conceptualization of organizational commitment has been passed through many testing in different studies and shows its applicability in different organizational setting (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) or different cultural context (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Gautam, van Dick, & Wagner, 2001).

From the view point of Allen and Meyer (1990), organizational commitment consists of three dimensions namely affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC). They define affective commitment as individuals' emotional connection to organization where highly committed employees involved in,

identifies with, and enjoy membership in specific organization. Moreover, AC indicates individuals' positive attitudes towards organization where they work for.

In case of continuance commitment, Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) stated that, continuance commitment indicates employees consciousness of costs related with quitting the organization, intention to accomplish considerable efforts on behalf of organization and stay as they need to stay in the organization. Similarly, Allen and Meyer (1990) applied the same term which refers to an individual' perceived cost related with quitting the organization. Here, continuance commitment refers to individual dedication towards organization.

Finally, Porter et al. (1974) stated that, normative commitment refers to individual feelings of indebtedness to continue their service in organization and high intention to maintaining organizational membership. They also stated that, individual staying in organization because of their personal needs. In addition, Wiener (1982) stated that, normative commitment triggered when individuals fully internalized the normative pressure in order to act in a way that meet the organizational goal. Therefore, it reflects perceived obligations of employees to continue in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Among three dimensions of organizational commitment, affective commitment is considered as the most important which have strongest positive correlation with expected outcome where the relationship between normative commitment and expected work

outcome are also perceived to be positive but somewhat weaker (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). On the other hand, the correlation between continuance commitment and expected outcomes are still weaker and found to be negative in some perspectives (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Both affective and normative commitment provides positive result and continuance commitment provides negative consequence in some cases.

According to Wiener (1982) normative commitment develops emotional bondage between employees and organization but it is not as strong as affective commitment. However, individuals who are normatively committed to organization work productively and stay positively with it. Although NC is one of the important elements of commitment but it is intensively interrelated with AC. Even couple of practical researchers did not found any considerable distinction between their consequences (Felfe, Yan, & Six, 2008). That is why, NC has been omitted in some studies and only AC and CC has been considered to evaluate the commitment (Gautam, Rolf, Narottam, & Ann, 2004). Thereafter, Solinger et al. (2008) stated that, three components model of organizational commitment had some problems and noted that affective commitment is only the component without substantial problems. They also reported that, continuance commitment often slightly negatively correlated with affective commitment but normative commitment strongly positively correlated with affective commitment. Moreover, AC is accepted by researchers as a vital constituent of OC and applied as an only predictor of OC in many studies (Behery, 2009; Boselie, 2010; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Kim & Chang, 2014). Likewise, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) provided the

argument that, individuals with greater level of affective commitment apparently considers the maximum benefit of their organizations compare to individuals with greater level of normative or continuance commitment. Specifically, they suggested that managers must give attention to increase the affective commitment of employees wherever it is possible. Therefore, affective commitment is the focal component of organizational commitment.

In addition to that, affective commitment encourages employees to learn new task and exchange opinion in the workplace which is revealed by previous literature. More importantly, Meyer and Allen (1997) argued that, affective commitment is positively associated with individual's intention to commit extra efforts to their work. This kind of commitment is expected to relate with providing and receiving knowledge in organization. Hall (2001) provided the argument that, people learned and share knowledge while they are satisfied with organization. High level of commitment increases the belief that learning will be appreciated by organization. Jarvenpaa and Staples (2001) stated that, greater level of commitment creates beliefs in the mind of employees' by which information and knowledge can be acquired. Thus, affective commitment encourages employees to learn in workplace. Therefore, the current study focuses on affective commitment as a mediator.

2.5.2 HRM Practices and Affective Commitment

Previously, researchers suggested that employee commitment towards organization depends on organizational supports (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). A number of studies provided the argument that HRM practices are significant factors to develop employees' commitment (Hassan & Mahmood, 2016; Lamba & Choudhary, 2013; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Mohyin, Dainty, & Carrillo, 2012; Ogilvie, 1986; Zaitouni, Sawalha, & El Sharif, 2011). In addition that, a mentionable number of studies examined the association between high performance HR practices and organizational commitment (e.g., Ang et al., 2013; Boon, Den Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, 2011; Farndale et al., 2011; Gould-Williams et al., 2013; Innocenti, Pilati, & Peluso, 2011; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Kwon, Bae, & Lawler, 2010; Mendelson et al., 2011; Messersmith et al., 2011; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Sanders, Dorenbosch, & de Reuver, 2008; Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006; Takeuchi & Takeuchi, 2013; Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003; Yang, 2012) and found the positive relationship between high performance HR practices and organizational commitment. Proper implementation of high performance HR practices creates supportive work environments by which employees feels an obligation to the objectives of organization and develops affective feelings to it (Kehoe & Wright, 2013).

Edgar and Geare (2005) conducted a study on employees in New Zealand for examining the relationship between HRM practices and work related attitudes and identified that HRM practices is significantly positively related with organizational commitment.

Similarly, Innocenti et al. (2011) performing a study in Italy for examining the effect of HRM practices on attitudes of employees and locate that HRM practices have greater positive effect on organizational commitment.

Recently, Gould-Williams et al. (2013) conducted a study on local government employees in the United Kingdom and determined that, high performance HR practices and affective commitment are positively related. Similarly, Yu and Egri (2005) conducted a study in China for determining the association between HRM practices and commitment and found that HRM practices significantly positively influences employees' affective commitment.

Beside these, some of the studies investigated the association between individual HR practices and organizational commitment (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boselie, 2010; Cantarello, Filippini, & Nosella, 2012; Gardner, Wright, & Moynihan, 2011; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Gould-Williams & Gatenby, 2010; Katou & Budhwar, 2010; Mukhtar, Sial, Imran, & jilani, 2012; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Su, Baird, & Blair, 2013). Certain practices of HRM such as promotion opportunity, training and reward (Bartlett, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997); contingent performance-reward (Rhodes & Steers, 1981); career progress and promotion (Wayne et al., 1997); sharing profit, and performance appraisal (Chang, 2005); job security (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) have positively related with organizational commitment. Particularly, certain high performance human resource practices namely reward, competence development recognition, empowerment (Paré & Tremblay, 2007), performance evaluations, payment based on merit , bonuses, promotion

opportunities, complaints system, cross-communication, and participation programs (Gardner et al., 2011); training and development, empowerment and recognition (Mukhtar et al., 2012); training and pay for performance (Su et al., 2013) have significant positive influence on employee's affective commitment. Moreover, Scheible and Bastos (2013) pointed out through their research findings that, there is a strong and positive relationship between HRM practices and affective commitment.

2.5.2.1 Selective Hiring and Affective Commitment

The term selective hiring refers to the rigorous process which includes systematic fitting between job candidates and job requirements, a careful initiative to attract the most talented and knowledgeable candidates from the competitive job market as well as provides the highest compensation to keep the best talent in organization (Fiorito, Bozeman, Young, & Meurs, 2007). Selective hiring can affect organizational commitment in many ways. First of all, whenever employees perceived that organization sacrificed significant cost and efforts in choosing them, they feel that organization valued them which in turn increases their commitment to organization (Fiorito et al., 2007). Secondly, proper match between job candidates and organizational requirements resulted in individual-organizational adjustment that can assist employees to recognize organization values and goals which leads to higher level of commitment (Dessler, 1999; Kazlauskaite, Buciuniene, & Turauskas, 2006; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). For example, Iplik, Kilic, and Yalcin (2011) conducted a study on Turkish five star hotels and found

that higher person-organization fit leads to higher organizational commitment and lower job stress.

More importantly, Mendelson et al. (2011) conducted a study in Canada and found that selective hiring significantly positively related with affective commitment of employees. Similarly, Kehoe and Wright (2013) and Gould-Williams et al. (2013) identified that selective hiring is an important predictor of employees' affective commitment. On the other hand, Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) identified that, rigorous selection process is not a significant predictor of affective commitment rather individuals who fit with organization have higher level of affective commitment. Moreover, Piyasena (2016) identified that, there is a significant positive relationship between selection and affective commitment.

2.5.2.2 Extensive Training and Affective Commitment

Generally, training is an important predictor of affective commitment and previous researchers has been found that training is positively related with affective commitment (Gould-Williams, 2004; Piyasena, 2016). Yu and Egri (2005) conducted a study in china and found that training is significantly positively correlated with affective commitment. As a component of high performance HRM practices training has significant influence on affective commitment of employees (Kehoe & Wright, 2013).

More importantly, different types of training increase the affective commitment of employees. Boselie (2010) conducted a study in Netherlands and identified that skill enhancing training, coaching and general training have significant positive effect on employees' affective commitment. Similarly, Piyasena (2016) conducted a study in Srilanka and determined that training is significantly positively related with affective commitment. Likewise, Laka-Mathebula (2004) identified that, training is moderately associated with affective commitment.

Besides, training related attitudes increase the affective commitment of employees. Ahmad and Bakar (2003) conducted a study on white-collar employees in Malaysia and found that availability of training, motivation to learn, support for training, potential benefits of training, environment of training are highly related with overall commitment of employees. Similarly, Bartlett and Kang (2004) conducted a comparative study on nurses of United States and New Zealand and found that inspiration to learn from training, access to training, expected benefits of training, and supervisory assistance for training is positively related with affective commitment of employees.

2.5.2.3 Performance Appraisal and Affective Commitment

Performance appraisal have potentials to improve individual perceptions of being valued by organization which is focal of affective commitment (Levy & Williams, 2004). Kwon et al. (2010) conducted a study in East Asia and found that performance appraisal significantly influences the affective commitment. Similarly, Saeed and &Shahbaz

(2011) administered a study on employees' perceptions about the effectiveness of performance evaluation in Pakistan and identified that performance appraisal and affective commitment are highly positively correlated. On the other hand, HRM practices such as performance appraisal indirectly influence the affective commitment (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Takeuchi & Takeuchi, 2013). More importantly, Kehoe and Wright (2013) conducted a study in USA and found performance appraisal to be significantly positively related with affective commitment.

When employees feel that performance appraisal reflects their development then they show a higher level of affective commitment (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). Likewise, Roberts and Reed (1996) suggested that, satisfactory performance appraisal leads to a higher level of affective commitment because employees' goal clarity and wholehearted participation is related with performance appraisal process. Moreover, Bekele, Shigutu, and Tensay (2014) conducted a study on auditor general of ANRS office and identified that there is a positive and meaningful relationship between perceptions of performance evaluation and affective commitment.

2.5.2.4 Compensation Practices and Affective Commitment

Previously, studies of HRM practices on commitment explored that a causal relationship exists between compensation practice and commitment. Attractive benefit packages provided by organizations to their employees indicate that the organization is taking care and supports their employees which leads to stronger affective commitment (Zaitouni et

al., 2011). Earlier studies considered the impact of compensation practices on affective commitment and represents mixed results. Gould-Williams et al. (2013) conducted a study in U.K. and found that HRM practices including compensation is positively related with affective commitment. Similarly, Yang (2012) conducted a study in Canada and identified that compensation practices is significantly positively related with affective commitment. Along with same line, Piyasena (2016) conducted a study in Sri Lanka and found that compensation related to pay is strongly positively correlated with affective commitment.

On the other hand, Giaque, Resentera, and Siggen (2010) identified that, compensation based on pay is the significant predictor of employee satisfaction but do not have any impact on affective commitment. Takeuchi and Takeuchi (2013) conducted a study in Japan and identified that compensation is indirectly related with affective commitment. However, compensation practices are significantly associated with affective commitment of employees (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986).

2.5.2.5 Employment Security and Affective Commitment

In general, employment security leads to higher organizational commitment among employees. For instance, Jago and Deery (2004) conducted a study on hotel employees and found that job security is positively related with organizational commitment. This study confirms earlier researches outcome (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Hundley, 2001; Liou

& Nyhan, 1994; Yousef, 1998). Along with the same line, Boxall and Macky (2007) and Boon et al. (2011) identified that employment security is significantly influence the organizational commitment.

More importantly, Yu and Egri (2005) conducted a study in china and found that job security is significantly positively associated with affective commitment. Employees' positive feelings about job security can increase employees' affective commitment. Mendelson et al. (2011) conducted a study in Canada and found that, employment security is positively correlated with affective commitment and negatively correlated with continuance commitment. Similarly, Gould-Williams et al. (2013) showed that job security is positively associated with affective commitment. Along with the same line, Piyasena (2016) identified that job security is strongly positively correlated with affective commitment.

On the other hand, Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) identified that, job security is not a significant predictor of affective commitment. Although there is a conflicting result, it is still support that, job security is essential for increasing the commitment of employees because without job security employees' affective commitments will be reduced (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Rosenblatt, Talmud, & Ruvio, 1999) and they will switch from one organization to another.

2.5.2.6 Promotion Opportunity and Affective Commitment

The formal acknowledgement of employees' performance is promotion which occurs through appreciation and moving up in organizational hierarchy. Promotion opportunity increases the overall commitment of employees (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Messersmith et al., 2011). Promoted employees feel appreciated by organization and try to return the organization with commitment and attain organizational goals (Blau, 1964).

Gardner et al. (2011) conducted a study in USA and found that promotion opportunity is significantly positively related with affective commitment. Similarly, Gould-Williams et al. (2013) conducted a study in UK and identified that positive association exists between promotion opportunity and affective commitment. When employees are appreciated by organization via promotion then employees dedicates to organization and identified with it which generates affective commitment. On the other hand, Piyasena (2016) identified that promotion opportunity is positively correlated with affective commitment but not strongly correlated. In addition to that, merit based promotion is significantly positively associated with affective commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2013).

2.5.2.7 Empowerment and Affective Commitment

Generally, empowerment indicates the organizational orientation through which employees received autonomy regarding day-to-day decision making about their job

affiliated duties (Bowen & Lawler, 1992). Empowerment encourages workforce to do extra-role, carry out additional duties, and show higher discretion at work.

Paré and Tremblay (2007) conducted a study in Canada and determined that there is a significant positive association between empowerment and affective commitment of employees. Similarly, Mukhtar et al. (2012) performed a study in Pakistan and identified that empowerment is significantly influence the overall organizational commitment. Moreover, Yang (2012) conducted a study in Taiwan and determined that empowerment is significantly positively related with affective commitment. On other hand, Piyasena (2016) identified that empowerment is moderately positively correlated with affective commitment but not strongly correlated. Moreover, Khan, Tariq, Hamayoun, and Bhutta (2014) clearly identified that, there is a significant positive relationship exists between empowerment and affective commitment.

2.5.2.8 Information Sharing and Affective Commitment

Information-sharing is beneficial for organization because it develops mutual trust and positive feelings in the minds of employees about organization. Basically, information sharing increases employees' perceptions of mutual trust and develop feelings that they are important to organization (Rodwell et al., 1998).

When employees are aware about organization and its performance and feel comfortable then employees are encouraged to share their ideas with management regarding the work

activities. When employees' gets opportunity to freely exchange their ideas and information with management then affective commitment of employees will be increased because employees perceived that organization is dedicated to help them for accomplishing their tasks. This statement is supported by Laka-Mathebula (2004) who identified that, information sharing is moderately correlated with affective commitment. Gould-Williams (2004) stated that, information sharing develops higher organizational commitment. On the contrary, Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) identified that, information sharing is not a significant predictor of affective commitment.

Recently, Innocenti et al. (2011) conducted a study in Italy and found that information sharing is significantly positively related with overall commitment of employees. Specially, Mendelson et al. (2011) conducted an empirical study in Canada and explored that information sharing and employees' affective commitment is significantly positively correlated. Information sharing is strengthening employees' involvement in organization (Lawler, 1986) and reduces turnover (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003).

In addition, Paré and Tremblay (2007) administering a study in Canada and identified that information sharing is significantly positively related with affective commitment. Likewise, Yang (2012) conducted a study in Taiwan and identified that, there is a significant positive relationship exists between information sharing and affective commitment.

2.5.3 Leadership Style and Affective Commitment

Generally, different leadership style can influence organizational commitment. Previously, a mentionable number of studies confirmed that different leadership styles plays a significant for enhancing organizational commitment (Elloy, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Shahzad, Rehman, & Abbas, 2010). However, in this study the focus is on affective commitment. Earlier researches indicates that there is a correlation between leadership and affective commitment (Mclaggan, Bezuidenhout, & Botha, 2013). Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) posited that, leadership styles and organizational commitment are highly correlated because leaders who maintain effective leadership style regarding planning and managing organizational functions can highly encourage their employees to be committed to their organization. The next section will discuss the effect of transformational and transactional leadership style on affective commitment.

2.5.3.1 Transformational Leadership Style and Affective Commitment

Previously researches identified that many factors can influence employees' organizational commitment. Among them transformational leadership style is one of the important factors that can affect organizational commitment in a greater extent (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). Transformational leadership is studied more than all other leadership theories and got significant attention because of its importance (Judge & Bono, 2000; Lowe & Gardner, 2001). More particularly, employees dealing with transformational leaders are highly engaged, motivated, empowered and

dedicated to their organizations and shows less withdrawal behaviors (Bono & Judge, 2003; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). Khasawneh, Omari, and Abu-Tineh (2012) found that, strong significant positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Earlier, a number researchers argued that, transformational leadership style is positively related with affective commitment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Chandna & Krishnan, 2009; Ekland, 2006; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). More importantly, Ekland (2006) found that, transformational leadership has certain positive effect on affective commitment.

Moreover, the affirmative effects of transformational leadership style on affective commitment are comparatively sound researched in the North American context and very few research is conducted about its impact on commitment in other contexts (Kuchinke, 1999). Recently, a number researchers conducted study in Asian context by considering the effect of transformational leadership on affective commitment. For example, Riaz, Akram, and Ijaz (2011) performed a quantitative research in banking sector of Islamabad in Pakistan for investigating the influence of transformational leadership style on employee organizational commitment and identified that, there is a significant positive relationship exists between transformational leadership style and affective commitment. Similarly, Batool (2013) conducted cross sectional study on banking sector of Pakistan to investigate the effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment and

identifies that transformational leadership style is significantly positively related with affective commitment.

Recently, Kim (2014) conducted a study in South Korean's public sector for investigating the link between transformational leadership and commitment and found that transformational leadership style and affective commitment are positively correlated. Transformational leader increases affective commitment of employees by fulfilling their social and esteem needs. Jain and Duggal (2015) also identified that, positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and affective commitment because transformational leader enhance affective commitment through satisfying the socio-emotional and self-esteem needs of employees.

2.5.3.2 Transactional Leadership Style and Affective Commitment

Transactional leaders are those who seek to encourage employees by appealing their self-interests. Like transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style influences the affective commitment of employees. McIlaggan et al. (2013) conducted a study on leadership style and organizational commitment in the mining industry in Mpumalanga and found that transactional leadership style is positively influences the affective commitment of employees. They also stated that, transactional leader increases the affective commitment of employees by providing reward. The exchanged of reward based on achieving agreed objectives may be associated with employees feelings about remaining with the organization. Similarly, Clinebell, Skudiene, Trijonyte, and Reardon

(2013) also identified that, there is a positive relationship between transactional leadership style and affective commitment. Moreover, Emery and Barker (2007) found that, transactional leadership and affective commitment is positively correlated.

Likewise, Mester, Visser, Roodt, and Kellerman (2003) conducted a study on leaders and raters on world class engineering company for identifying the relationship between leadership style and employees attitudes and behavior and found that, transactional leadership style is positively related with affective commitment of employees by analyzing the rater data. They also found that, there is a no significant relation between transactional leadership style and other attitudes and behavior such as job involvement and job satisfaction. However, Saeed, Gelaidan, and Ahmad (2013) conducted a study on academic staff of public university in Yemen for determining the relationship between leadership style and commitment and identified that, transactional leadership style is positively related with affective commitment.

2.6 Affective Commitment and Informal Workplace Learning

Generally, organizational commitment refers to employees' commitment towards organization. Previously a number of studies recommended that, employee behaviors and work performance are influenced by overall organizational commitment and its components (George & Sabapathy, 2011; Khan, Ziauddin, & Ramay, 2010; Liu & Cohen, 2010; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Vilela, González, & Ferrín, 2008). It is evident that commitment is positively associated with job satisfaction (Vilela et al., 2008; Wong,

Wong, Hui, & Law, 2001), job performance (Chen, Yang, Shiau, & Wang, 2006; Khan et al., 2010), motivation to work (George & Sabapathy, 2011), and organizational citizenship behavior (Liu & Cohen, 2010; Paré & Tremblay, 2007). Researchers also identified that, commitment is inversely associated with turnover intention of employees (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Paré & Tremblay, 2007). Employees with no commitment or less commitment want to skip work, leave work or come to work late (Meyer & Allen, 1997). That is why, organizational commitment is vital for achieving organizational objectives (Dick & Metcalfe, 2001). OC develops employees' as problem solvers rather than problems makers (Savery & Syme, 1996).

According to Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker (1990) organizational commitment is considered as one of the important components for workplace learning as well as learning success. Similarly Senge (1990) argued that, organizational commitment is vital requirements for informal workplace learning and develops a learning organization. Previously, some of the studies also mentioned that organizational commitment can enhance employees learning in workplace (Bhatnagar, 2007; Pool & Pool, 2007). Pool and Pool (2007) pointed out that, executive with greater level of work motivation and organizational commitment will have greater intention to learn in workplace. Higher level of motivation of employees enhances affective commitment which leads to enhance learning in workplace. Moreover, organizational commitment particularly affective commitment positively influence workplace learning (Mehrabi, Jadidi, Haery, & Alemzadeh, 2013; Rezaei-Dizgah, Gilldeh, Aghajan-Nashtaei, & Anvary, 2012; Salarian, Baharmpour, & Habibi, 2015). In fact, organizational commitment is a higher level of

attitudinal aspect in workplace learning and develop learning in organization (Brooks, 2002).

In addition, Massingham and Diment (2009) conducted a study on research and development division of Australia's dominant steel manufacturing firm and explored that, OC is considered as an input of learning in workplace. OC encourages employees to learn informally in workplace (Levitt & March, 1988). Moreover, Kofman and Senge (1993) suggested that without OC learning is not possible in organization and as a result it is not possible to develop a learning organization.

It is important to highlight that employees need to be affectively committed towards their organization for informal workplace learning. Affectively committed employees have sense of belongingness and identifications that increases their involvement in workplace learning activities (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wen et al., 2014). More particularly, affective commitment supposed to have significant correlation with workplace learning climate (Budihardjo, 2013). Krishna (2008) conducted a study on Indian software firms and found that affective commitment has positive and significant effects on learning in workplace.

Previous studies supported that, employees with greater level of commitment especially affective commitment will encourages them to participates in workplace learning (Samad, 2003). But there is a paucity of research on affective commitment and employees learning process. Hislop (2003) stated that, although affective commitment can highly influences the willingness of employees to learn and transfer their knowledge

but there is a lack of research on this topic. Employee with greater degree of affective commitment are less probability to move from the organization and intended to do discretionary efforts like learn and share knowledge within the organization (Storey & Quintas, 2001). Moreover, affective commitment highly influences the willingness of employees to exchange and share knowledge (McKenzie, Truc, & van Winkelen, 2001; Scarbrough & Carter, 2000). Lin (2006) pointed out that, affective commitment is essential to tacit knowledge sharing. Likewise, Peltokorpi (2004) also identified that, affective commitment can encourage workers to learn informally such as through sharing and exchanging their knowledge. Similarly, Wu and Liu (2006) and Treuer et al. (2013) identified that, there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and workplace learning. organization's ability to learn rapidly will get more competitive advantages than their competitors (Fisser & Browaeys, 2010).

2.7 Affective Commitment as a Mediating Variable

Previously, a number of researches conducted study on considering the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and individual behavior. But there is lack of research on the process which connects HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. It is one of the objectives of the current study is to identify whether affective commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning.

However, studies observed that, the role of organizational commitment more particularly the affective commitment as a mediating variable is still limited. Ke, Wang, Liu, Wei, and He (2008) explored that, the intervening effect of goal commitment on the association between workplace environmental factors and user competence. User competence here is the reflection of learning outcomes (Munro, Huff, Marcolin, & Compeau, 1997). A number of researchers, such as Moynihan et al. (2001), Morrow and McElroy (2001) and Hislop (2003) pointed out that, there is a missing link between HRM practices and outcomes. Moynihan et al. (2001) explored that, in general organizational commitment mediates the link between practices of HRM and customer satisfaction. Similarly, Juhdi, Pa'wan, Hansaram, Kaur, and Othman (2011) identified that, HRM practices and turn over intention of employees is mediated by organizational commitment. Moreover, Suliman (2002) identified that, organizational commitment partially mediate the association between work climate and individual performance but continuance commitment is not a mediator in this relationship. Specially, Obeidat and Abdallah (2014) found that, organizational commitment has a mediation effect on the association between HRM practices and knowledge management process.

More importantly, affective commitment plays a significant role in mediating the link between HRM practices and employees outcomes. Hemdi and Narsudin (2005) and Joarder, Sharif, and Ahmmed (2011) found that, mediation effect of affective commitment on the association between HRM practices and turnover intention of employees. In addition to that, affective commitment can be used as a mediator in case of informal learning. Thompson and Heron (2006) identified that, commitment mediates the

association between employees' psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing. More importantly, a study conducted by Camelo-Ordaz et al. (2011) in Spain and identified that, affective commitment mediates the link between HRM practices and employees knowledge sharing and innovation. Along with the same line, Kim and Choi (2014) conducted a study on software developers in Korea and determined that, affective commitment mediates the association between HRM practices and innovation.

Beside HRM practices, affective commitment can mediate the link between leadership style and informal workplace learning. Berson et al. (2006) and Kesting, Ulhøi, Song, and Niu (2015) stated that, there is a missing link between leadership and innovation (a process of informal workplace learning) and suggested that future study should consider a mediator for better explaining the mechanism of relationship. Bel (2010) pointed out that, commitment can act as a mediator between leadership and innovation as a process of learning. For instance, organizational commitment mediates the association between transformational leadership and knowledge sharing (Avolio et al., 2004; Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad, & Yusuf, 2011). Moreover, Han, Seo, Li, and Yoon (2015) supported this argument and stated that, leaders must be aware about the significance of employee commitment which enhances the knowledge sharing of employees within organization.

In addition, Almutairi (2013) found that, affective commitment mediates the link between transformational leadership and employee performance in organization. More importantly, Abdullah, Shamsuddin, Wahab, Hamid, and Aziaiti (2015) identified that,

organizational commitment particularly affective commitment mediates the association between leadership and innovative work behavior. Similarly, Poppendick (2009) conducted a study for investigating the indirect and direct effect of leadership on innovation and mentioned that affective commitment mediates the link between transformational leadership style and innovation. He added that affective commitment enhances informal learning and career progress by the support of transformational leadership. Moreover, he suggested that future study can be conducted by considering others leadership style such as transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership along with transformational leadership style and their influence on employees innovation (type of learning) through the mediation of affective commitment. Thus, it may assume that, affective commitment mediates the relationship between leadership style and employees' outcome like informal workplace learning.

By the review of literature it is evident that HRM practices and leadership style are positively related with affective commitment and affective commitment is positively related with informal workplace learning therefore, it is expected that affective commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning of employees.

2.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter started with the concept of workplace learning followed by definitions, levels and types of workplace learning. This chapter discussed the existing literature

related to informal workplace learning, theories of informal workplace learning and situated learning theory. The chapter then discussed literature regarding HRM practices and leadership style. A considerable literature was discussed to understand the impact of HRM practices and leadership styles on informal workplace learning. Finally, the chapter discussed the literature on affective commitment as the mediating variable.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter represents the existing literature related to human resource management practices, leadership style, affective commitment and show their relationship with informal workplace learning. Thus, it is necessary to place forward the process through which the research questions shall be answered and objectives are attained. To fulfill the purposes, the next tasks are to design detail methodologies and to formulate the entire research structure. Keeping this in mind, this chapter emphasizes on the research design, theoretical framework of research, hypotheses development, and operationalization of variables. Afterwards, this chapter discusses about the population, sample size and sampling techniques, as well as the unit of analysis used for this study. Finally, questionnaire development, data collection procedures, and data analysis techniques are also detailed out.

3.2 Research Design

Generally, research design may be considered as plans and procedures for conducting a research that helps to take decisions from broad assumptions through collection and analysis of data (Creswell, 2009). According to Trochim (2002) a research design provides the idea which keeps the research project well organized. Moreover, research

design is necessary for organizing the research. It demonstrates how all crucial parts of the research activity such as treatments, samples and measurement method act collectively by focusing on the key research questions. Thyer (1993) mentioned that, research design is a comprehensive plan which emphasis on how a researcher performs his study through the operational variables that needed to be measured and sample collected with a view to test the research hypotheses. On the other hand, Kumar (1996) suggested that research design is a plan by which the investigator searches the answer of his research question.

The current study is correlational in nature where the researcher collect pertinent data and analyze the variables associated with the theoretical framework (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). For the purpose of conducting this study, it has been decided that, a cross-sectional field study using survey questionnaire is most suitable because this study is mainly a study of social process (Babbie, 1995). Basically a cross-sectional study is related with the measurement of all variables for all cases within a shortest possible time so that the measurement can be considered as contemporaneous. Moreover, the current study pursues cross-sectional research method where data has been collected at single point of time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010) . Therefore, the cross-sectional study method is appropriate for this study because the researcher paid attention to find out what are the perception of the respondents towards HRM practices, leadership style in their bank, their affective commitment and their informal workplace learning. Data for this study consists of perceptions of head of the department working in branches. As the study is cross

sectional in nature, data have analyzed to examine hypotheses in order to know the association among the identified variables.

3.3 Proposed Framework for Research

Based on the review of previous literature regarding current study variables, a research framework is developed which is provided in Figure 3.1. According to the review of literature, HRM practices and leadership styles are directly related with informal workplace learning. In addition to that, affective commitment is used as a mediating variable with an expectation that this variable will mediate the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning because researchers argued that, there is a missing link between HRM practices, leadership style and outcome in general and informal workplace learning in particular.

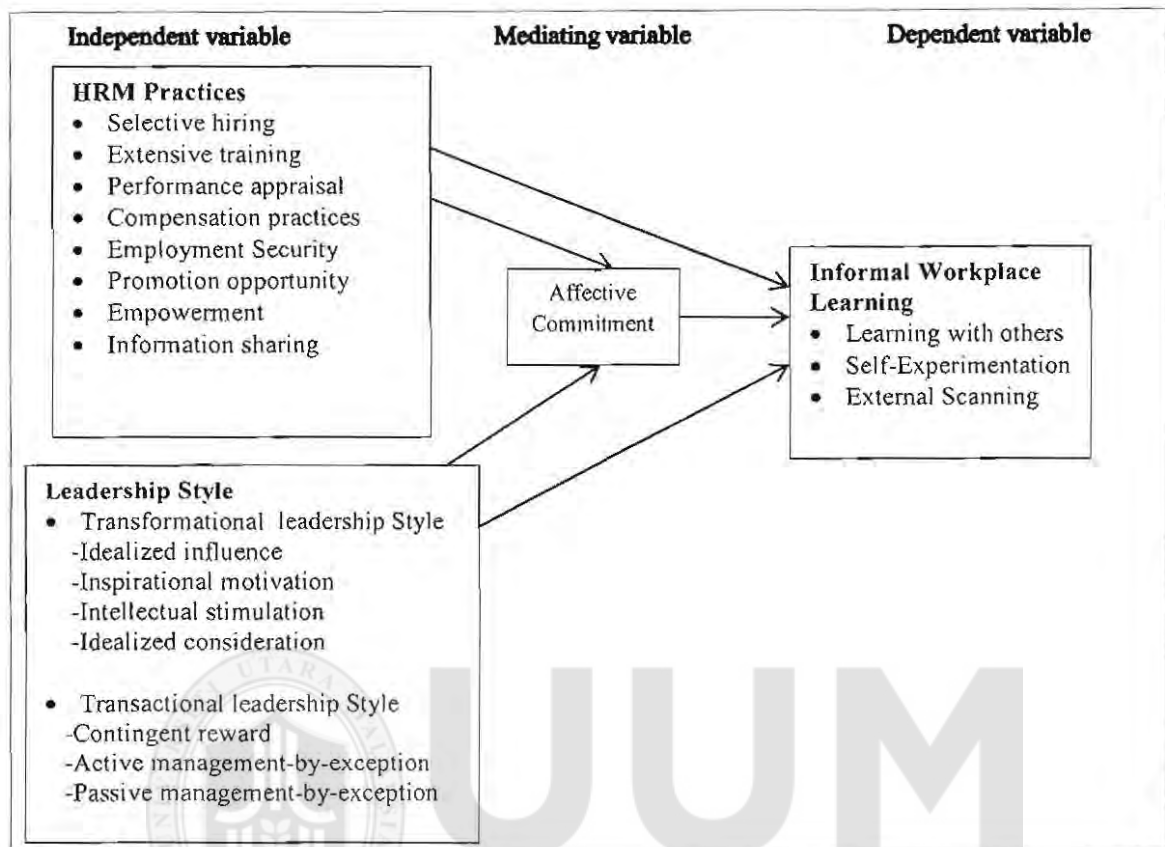


Figure 3.1
Proposed Research Framework

As per the framework, informal workplaces learning is considered as dependent variable and will be measured from view point of three dimensions namely learning with others, self-experimentation and environmental scanning. Eight important HRM practices (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing) are used as independent variables to identify their relationship with informal workplace learning. In addition, leadership styles (transformational, transactional) are also used as independent variables to determine their relationship with informal workplace learning.

The study is emphasis on both direct and indirect connection between independent and dependent variable. Indirect relationship will be examined through the mediation of affective commitment.

3.4 Justification of the Framework

The purpose of informal workplace learning is to enhance learning of employees in organization and develops organization as a learning organization. More specifically, informal workplace learning increases learning of employees which provides competitive advantage to organization. As per the theory of situated learning, informal workplace learning is situated in organization which occurs through interaction, self experimentation, sharing knowledge and regular work practices. The assumption of situated learning is that, all types of learning are situated and affected by organizational factors directly and indirectly.

Based on this theory, present study proposes HRM practices and leadership styles as independent variables to test their impact on informal workplace learning in private commercial banks of Bangladesh. In this section, proper justification is provided for using HRM practices, leadership style, affective commitment and informal workplace learning.

The first important independent variable of the framework represents that informal workplace learning is influenced by HRM practices. The relationship between HRM and

knowledge management is specifically obvious when learning is situated. There is also a close relationship between HRM and informal workplace learning as the learning situated in workplace and it may occurs through interaction with other members in community (Raub, 2002). Potential advantage of workplace learning can be determined through the application of important HRM practices (Raub, 2002).

Recent studies on informal workplace learning and knowledge management have shown that, HRM practices are considered as important instruments for enhancing and diffusing learning in workplace (Raub & Rüling, 2001; Scarbrough & Swan, 1999). HRM practices can contribute informal workplace learning through directly involved in application of proper HRM practices and support the employees to engage in informal workplace learning (Bednall et al., 2014). Therefore, current study expect that HRM practices namely selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment and information sharing are positively related to informal workplace learning.

The second independent variable provides in the framework is leadership style which has influence on informal workplace learning. Froehlich et al. (2014) revealed that, leadership style increases informal learning in workplace. Likewise, Brown and Duguid (2001) pointed out that, leadership style can facilitates informal workplace learning as learning is situated and take place through interactions with others in workplace. Leadership style can helps employees in case of transferring knowledge within and across the organization and can provide proper guidelines to organizational members through

which learning and knowledge sharing environment can be created. Moreover, leadership can foster the employees' personal growth, personal mastery and continuous learning (Senge, 2006).

Current study uses affective commitment as a mediating variable. Previously researchers argued that there is a missing link between HRM practices and learning (Diaz-Fernandez et al., 2016; Sanders & Lin, 2016) leadership style and learning (Berson et al., 2006). Hence, organizational commitment can enhance individual learning in the workplace (Levitt & March, 1988) and particularly affective commitment can positively influence the workplace learning (Budihardjo, 2013). Therefore, it is expected that affective commitment mediates the link between these variables.

The dependent variable provides in the framework is informal workplace learning. Informal workplace learning is essential to improve the knowledge, skills and competency of employees which provides competitive advantage to organization. However, the empirical study on informal workplace learning is very limited. Therefore, it is necessary to see informal workplace learning from quantitative perspective and how organizational factors (HRM practices, leadership) directly and indirectly influence informal workplace learning. In Bangladesh there is a lack of study on informal workplace learning and organization provides only traditional training for enhancing knowledge and skills of employees (Mahmood & Akhter, 2011). Therefore, current study considers informal workplace learning as a dependent variable to examine the

relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning through the mediating effect of affective commitment.

3.5 Hypotheses Development

The focal purpose of developing hypotheses is to provide answer of the research questions that appears from objectives of the study. The objective of the current study is to enhance employees' informal workplace learning by employing human resource management practices, leadership style through the mediating effect of affective commitment.

Based on the review of literature, it is evident that HRM practices are positively related with informal workplace learning. Camps and Luna-Arocas, (2010) and Lopez et al., (2005) found the positive and significant effect of high performance HRM practices on learning in workplace. Abdel-Qader and Al-Mahayreh (2015) and Thom-Otuya et al. (2014) identified that, HRM practices have significant impact on employees learning and development in workplace. Similarly, Hu et al. (2015) conducted a study on Chinese private sector for investigating the association between strategic HRM practices and employee learning in the workplace and identified that there is a significant positive relationship between strategic HRM practices and learning in workplace. In addition, Bednall et al. (2014) identified that, positive relationship exists between HRM practices and informal workplace learning. Therefore, in the same line with the previous research

present study also expects the positive relationship between HRM practices and informal workplace learning and proposed the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Employee perception of HRM practices (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing) are positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1a: Employee perception of selective hiring is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1b: Employee perception of extensive training is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1c: Employee perception of performance appraisal is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1d: Employee perception of compensation practices is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1e: Employee perception of employment security is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1f: Employee perception of promotion opportunity is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1g: Employee perception of empowerment is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 1h: Employee perception of information sharing is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Secondly, from the review of literature it is proved that there is a positive relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning. Hasson et al. (2016) identified that there is a positive relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning. Moreover, Froehlich et al., (2014) found that, leadership style and informal workplace learning is positively associated. Likewise, Nafei, Khanfar and Kaifi (2015) conducted a study on Saudi Banks and found that there is a positive and significant relationship exists between leadership style (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and informal workplace learning. The result of their empirical study validates the perception that effective leadership style (both transformational leadership and transactional leadership) leads to enhance informal learning in workplace. Therefore, in the line with the previous research, current study also proposes the positive relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning and develop hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 2: Employee perception of leadership style (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 2a: Employee perception of transformational leadership style is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 2b: Employee perception of transactional leadership style is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.

Thirdly, through the review of literature it is evident that HRM practices strongly influence affective commitment and affective commitment strongly impact informal workplace learning. Hence, there is a possibility that affective commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices and informal workplace learning, and following hypotheses is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of HRM practices (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing) and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3a: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of selective hiring and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3b: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of extensive training and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3c: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of performance appraisal and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3d: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of compensation practices and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3e: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of employment security and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3f: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of promotion opportunity and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3g: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of empowerment and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 3h: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of information sharing and informal workplace learning.

Through the review of literature it is also evident that leadership style used in this study strongly influence affective commitment and affective commitment strongly impact informal workplace learning. Hence, there is a possibility that affective commitment mediates the relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning and following hypotheses is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of leadership style (transformational and transactional) and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 4a: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of transformational leadership style and informal workplace learning.

Hypothesis 4b: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning.

3.6 Selection of Population and Sampling

3.6.1 Population

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010) population composes of the whole group of events, people, or things of concern that is being examined by the researchers. Mistakes in selecting samples can be avoided through identifications of appropriate target population. Through selecting the appropriate sample, the researcher can come up into end that might be generalized to the population of concern (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001). For the current study the population consists of head of departments working in branch level of 39 private commercial banks (PCB) operating in Dhaka division of Bangladesh (Bangladesh Bank, 2015). Branches of private commercial banks have four departments such as accounts, general banking, foreign exchange and credit and each department is consisted of one departmental head who is responsible for accomplishing the departmental activities (Debnath, 2008). Therefore, this study considers four head of department of each branch as respondents. There are 1681 branches of 39 private commercial banks operating in Dhaka division. As each branch has four head of department, the total population for this study becomes $(1681 \times 4) 6724$.

3.6.2 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Previously a number of researchers have examined what formulates an appropriate sample size. According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) the common rule is that sample size should be minimum five times as many observations as the number of

variables to be analyzed in a study and the more suitable size would be 10:1. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) pointed out that, sample should be 10 times the number of variables placed in the study. Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, and King (2006) also recommended that a sample size should be at least 10 respondents for every parameter estimate. Hoe (2008) recommended that, any sample size more than 200 is adequate for analyzing data. Based on the above recommendations, the sample size for the present study has targeted as at least 200. Moreover, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) in their table suggested that for 7000 population sample size should be 364. Therefore, present study has considered 364 as required sample size.

The study used multistage sampling technique to take the sample from population. Korb (2012) stated that multistage sampling is a sampling technique where researchers select sample by using multiple steps and different sampling techniques. These techniques are used when ultimate unit of analysis is not determined at initial stage. Hence, researchers use these techniques while they go through two or more stages (Peters, Poutsma, Van der Heijden, Bakker, & Bruijn, 2014; Tessema & Soeters, 2006).

Therefore, the current study uses multistage sampling technique by using two stages. Firstly, branches have been selected by using random sampling method and secondly, departmental head has been selected systematically.

In first stage, list of branches are considered as a sampling frame for this study as overall list of head of the departments working in branch level are absent. Sample size selection process is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3. 1
Population and Sampling

No. of Branches in Dhaka division	Departmental head working in each branch	Total departmental head	Population size	Sample size
1681	04	1681*4	6724	364

There are 1681 branches of 39 private commercial banks operating in Dhaka division (Bangladesh Bank, 2015). Out of 1681 branches 364 branches have randomly selected by the application of R software. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) for 7000 population sample size is 364.

In second stage, departmental head are selected as ultimate respondents from randomly selected branches by using systematic sampling technique. At first, all selected serially arranged branches with their respective bank name were coded as per serial number. For example, if branch serial number and respective bank serial number is one then it was coded as (1, 1) and follow the same procedures. Secondly, respective four departments were given a unique code number. For example, general banking was denoted with the code number (A), accounts department was denoted with the code number (B), credit department was coded with code number (C) and foreign exchange department was coded with code number (D). From the randomly selected first branch departmental head of code (A) and code (B) was selected as respondent. Similarly, from the randomly

selected second branch department head of code (C) and (D) were selected consecutively as a respondent. Afterwards, this procedure was followed systematically for selecting respondents from rest of the randomly selected branches. However, to minimize the non-response rate and reduce the sampling error the total sample size is multiplied by two (Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau, & Bush, 2008). Alreck and Settle (1994) suggest that lower sample size creates high tendency of error and higher sample size generates more accurate results. Therefore, the total of 728 questionnaires was systematically distributed to randomly selected 364 branches. In each branch two questionnaire were distributed to two departmental heads systematically.

3.6.3 Unit of Analysis

In this study, the unit of analysis is the employees working as a head of the department of branches in PCBs of Bangladesh. Head of the departments are responsible for supervising the employees working under him. As head of the departments are the representative of the department as well as key employees of organization their perception should be measured (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). The reasons for choosing head of the departments as respondents for this study are firstly, head of the department hold a suitable position to manage their subordinates (Andersen, Cooper, & Zhu, 2007; Martins, 2007). Secondly, their learning is so important for properly managing other employees in organization. Thirdly, the necessities of learning of head of the department is increasing due to the rapid changes of technology and continuous internationalization of banks (Froehlich et al., 2014; Lüscher & Lewis, 2008). They can take the initiative for learning

and development of other employees working in branch under their supervision and develop the organization as a learning organization. Finally, their learning is crucial because they are maintaining communication with upper level and lower level of employees and dealing with regular challenges associated with their job. Therefore, the current study considers single respondent who are working as head of the department in branch level of private commercial banks in Dhaka division.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

The study followed the survey method for achieving the objectives of the study. Hair, Bush, and Ortinau (2003) suggested that the most powerful research method is the survey design through which researcher can redefine objectives and problems with primary data that are collected from large respondents by the help of structured questionnaire. A number of studies (e.g. Hair et al., 2003; Zikmund, 1991) supported that survey method is most useful in the field of business and management research and even it highly pertinent in the area of social science research (Babbie, 2004). The current study followed the survey method through developing questionnaire to fulfill the research objective. The following section explains the method of designing questionnaire, pretesting and survey refinement, pilot study analysis and the procedures of collecting data.

3.8 Questionnaire Design

In order to develop the research instrument, close attention were given to the purpose of the study, research questions and plan for analyzing data. To answer the research questions posited in Chapter 1, a quantitative survey method has been followed. Therefore, questionnaire is developed based on the objectives of the study.

3.8.1 Measurement of Variables

In this study there are four main variables namely, informal workplace learning, HRM practices, leadership style and affective commitment. The dependent variable for this study is informal workplace learning, and the independent variables are HRM practices and leadership style. In addition to that, affective commitment is the mediating variable. HRM practices consists of eight components as discussed in the literature review includes selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment and information sharing. Leadership style consists of transformational and transactional leadership style. Measurement scales have been developed to measure all the variables involved in the study. The questionnaires for survey have been adapted from previous researchers. These measurement scales have provided in the questionnaire booklet. The research questionnaire consists of five major sections. The first section measures the respondent's informal workplace learning. The second section measures the HRM practices executed by the organization. Then the third section measures the leadership style perceived in the

organization where the fourth section measures the respondents' affective commitment towards their organization. Finally, the last section has been used to collect the respondents' demographic information. The set of questionnaire is provided in the Appendix-G which has used for data collection.

Likert scale has been used to measure each item. Sekaran (2003) pointed out that, Likert scale is used to investigate how firmly the respondents agree or disagree regarding particular statement (item) of a measurement scale. The study used five-point Likert scale instead of three-point or seven-point scale. There are number of reasons for choosing five-point Likert scale. First of all, in social science research five-point Likert scale is extensively used (Martins & Garland Jr, 1991). Secondly, it is claimed that they are able to generate near about similar precision with other Likert scales (Dawes, 2008; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Thirdly, five point likert scale is better compare to other Likert scale because it provides better mean value (Dawes, 2008). Fourthly, respondents often confuse when a Likert scale is above five points (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005). In addition to that, previously most of the researchers used five point Likert scale from whom item have been adopted for this study. Therefore, for better comparison it is helpful to use the same scale. In case of five point likert scale, the current study used 1 to indicate 'strongly disagree', 2 to indicate 'disagree', 3 to indicate 'neutral', 4 to indicate 'agree', and five to indicate 'strongly agree'. Table 3.2 shows the detailed list of items for each variable and their respective sources.

Table 3. 2

Detailed List of Items for Each Variable and Their Respective Sources

No	Variables	Dimensions	No. of Items	Respective Sources	Cornbach's alpha
1.	Informal workplace learning	Learning with others	4	(Choi & Jacobs, 2011)	.90
		Self-experimentation	4		
		External scanning	4		
2.	HRM practices	Selective hiring	5	(Zacharatos et al., 2005)	.78
		Extensive training	5	(Jaw & Liu, 2003)	.78
		Compensation practices	6	(Tessema & Soeters, 2006).	.82
		Employment security	5	(Zacharatos et al., 2005)	.70
		Performance appraisal	6	(Chuang & Liao, 2010)	.74
		Promotion opportunity	4	(Mostafa et al., 2015)	0.77-0.92
		Empowerment	5	(Jaw & Liu, 2003)	.70
		Information sharing	9	(Paré & Tremblay, 2007)	.85
3.	Transformational leadership style	Idealized influence	8	Bass and Avolio (1995)	.89
		Inspirational motivation	4		
		Intellectual stimulation	4		
		Individualized consideration	4		
4.	Transactional leadership style	Contingent Reward	4	Bass and Avolio (1995)	.81
		Active management by exception	4		
		Passive management by exception	4		
5.	Affective Commitment		8	(Allen & Meyer, 1990)	.87
Total			97		

3.8.1.1 Informal Workplace Learning

The first section of the questionnaire measures employees' informal workplace learning. Informal workplace learning is adapted from the work of Choi and Jacobs (2011) which is originally developed by Lohman (2005). The measurement items of the dimensions of informal workplace learning and their sources are provided in Table 3.3.

Table 3. 3

Items for Measuring Informal Workplace Learning with Dimensions

Dimensions	Items	sources
Learning with Others (LWO)	LWO1: Informal one-on-one discussion with supervisor about some work situation LWO2: Idea exchange on how to solve a problem situation with peers during a break or lunch period. LWO3: Observation of how other employees dealt with a challenging work situation. LWO4: collaboration with others who shared the need to solve a particular problem	Choi and Jacobs (2011)
Self-Experimentation (SE)	SE1: Spending time to reflect back how I deal with a challenging work situation. SE2: Trying to solve a challenging work situation through trial and error process by myself. SE3: Spending time to reflect on what I had learned in a classroom training program to apply that information to a challenging work situation. SE4: Reading a standard operations manual or other similar texts on my own to find an answer to a question.	Choi and Jacobs (2011)
External Scanning (EXTS)	EXTS1: I Search the Internet for information to help solve a challenging work situation. EXTS2: I attend at a non-mandatory professional conference or seminar that might provide useful information. EXTS3: I read professional magazines or vender publications to be current in some topic. EXTS4: I have contact with someone outside the company who is able to help solve a challenging work situation	Choi and Jacobs (2011)

3.8.1.2 HRM Practices

The second part of the survey questionnaire consists of HRM practices perceived by the employees. The measurement scale is use for measuring the participants' perception regarding certain HRM practices executed in their organization. The scale contains the statement that explain each of the eight HRM practices involved in the study and the respondents are required to identify the extent to which they perceive such practices. Adaptation has been made with a view to ensure that the items in the measurement scale are appropriate for the current study. The measurement items of the dimensions of HRM practices and their sources are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3. 4

Items for Measuring HRM practices with Dimensions

Dimensions of HRM Practice	Items	Sources
Selective Hiring (SH)	SH1: Getting a job here was not certainly easy. SH2: Only the best are hired to work in my organization. SH3: To get my job, I had to go through an extensive hiring process. SH4: When new employees are hired, they must go through an extensive hiring process in which they are interviewed a number of times. SH5: My organization does not pay a great deal of attention to the hiring of new employees (R).	Zacharatos et al. (2005)
Extensive Training (ET)	ET1: My company provides education and training programs that are not directly related to my current position. ET2: My company encourages continuing education plans. ET3: A wide variety of training programs is provided in my company. ET4: Extensive training programs are provided for individuals in this job. ET5: Employees in this job will normally go through training programs every few years.	Jaw and Liu (2003)
Performance Appraisal (PA)	PA1: Performance appraisals provide employees feedback for personal development. PA2: Performance appraisals are based on multiple sources (self, coworkers, supervisors, customers, etc.). PA3: Performance appraisals are based on objective, quantifiable results. PA4: Supervisors do not get together with employees to set their personal goals. (R) PA5: Satisfying customers is the most important work guideline. PA6: Meeting customers' needs is emphasized in performance appraisals.	Chuang and Liao (2010)
Compensation Practices (CP)	CP1: Presence of attractive compensation system. CP2: Presence of equitable internal salary. CP3: Presence of equitable external salary. CP4: Presence of salary that reflects performance. CP5: Presence of salary that encourages better performance. CP6: Presence of salary that reflects the standard of living.	Tessema and Soeters (2006)
Employment Security (ES)	ES1: I have work in my organization for as long as I want it. ES2: If I were to lose my current position, my organization would try very hard to place me in another position elsewhere in the organization. ES3: I can be sure of being employed in my organization as long as I do good work. ES4: This organization provides me with retirement security. ES5: I am not really sure how long I will be employed by my organization (R).	Zacharatos et al. (2005)
Promotion Opportunity (PO)	PO1: I have good opportunities of being promoted within this organization. PO2: The promotion process used by my organization is fair for all employees PO3: Employees who desire promotion in this organization have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	Mostafa et al. (2015)

	PO4: Qualified employees in this job have the opportunity to be promoted to positions of greater pay and/or responsibility within the organization	
Empowerment (EP)	EP1: I can decide how to get my job done. EP2: I am confident about my ability to do my job. EP3: The content of my job varies frequently. EP4: I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job. EP5: I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	Jaw and Liu (2003)
Information Sharing (IS)	IS1: Employees are regularly informed of future corporate projects (e.g., major investment, acquisitions, new technologies). IS2: Employees are regularly informed of financial results. IS3: Employees are regularly informed of their work unit's performance. IS4: Employees are regularly informed of technological orientations. IS5: Managers regularly inform employees of the level of customer satisfaction for products or services offered. IS6: Employees' suggestions concerning ways to improve our work unit's effectiveness are seriously taken into account. IS7: Employees are regularly informed of the criteria that will be included in their performance evaluation. IS8: Employees' suggestions are followed up. IS9: Employees are regularly informed of new products and / services.	Paré and Tremblay (2007)

3.8.1.3 Leadership Style

The third part of the survey questionnaire consists of leadership style followed by organization. Leadership styles consist of both transformational and transactional leadership. Items of leadership style were adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5x-short) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). The use of MLQ for this study was deemed appropriate because MLQ was extensively adapted by previous researches to measure transformational and transactional leadership (e.g. Ismail, Mohamad, Mohamed, Rafiuddin, & Zhen, 2010; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Li & Hung, 2009; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Items for measuring transformational and transactional leadership style with their dimensions and sources are shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3. 5

Items for Measuring Leadership Style with Dimensions

Leadership style	Dimensions	Items	Sources
Transformational leadership style	Idealized Influence (IDI)	IDI1: Talks about his /her most important values and beliefs. IDI2: Makes me feel proud for being associated with him/her IDI3: Specifies the importance of having a clear sense of direction IDI4: Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the team. IDI5: Acts in ways that make me respect him/her IDI6: Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions. IDI7: Displays a sense of power and confidence. IDI8: Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	Bass and Avolio (1995)
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	IM1: Talks positively about the future. IM2: Is excited when he/she talks about what needs to be accomplished. IM3: Conveys/communicates a clear vision of the future. IM4: Is confidence that goals will be achieved	
	Intellectual Stimulation (INTST)	INTST1: Seeks different perspectives when solving problems. INTST2: Gets me to look at problems from many different angles. INTST3: Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments. INTST4: Re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate".	
	Individualized Consideration (IC)	IC1: Spends time teaching and coaching me. IC2: Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group. IC3: Know that I have different needs, abilities and ambitions from others. IC4: Helps me to develop my strengths.	
Transactional Leadership style	Contingent Reward (CR)	CR1: Helps me in exchange for my efforts. CR2: Discusses specifically who is responsible to achieve performance goals. CR3: Makes clear what reward one can get when performance goals are achieved. CR4: Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.	Bass and Avolio (1995)
	Active Management-by-Exception (AME)	AME1: Keeps track of all mistakes. AME2: Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures. AME3: Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards. AME4: Focuses attention on things that didn't work according to the plan.	
	Passive Management-by-Exception (PME)	PME1: Fails to get involved before problems become serious. PME2: Waits for things to go wrong only will take action PME3: Will not change anything if it is still works PME4: Will take action only when problems become serious	

3.8.1.4 Affective Commitment

In this study affective commitment is conceptualized to the extent of strength of employees' identification with and involvement in, and enjoys membership in a particular organization. Therefore, the scale to measure affective commitment in this study has been adapted from the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Items to measure affective commitment are presented in Table 3-6.

Table 3. 6
Items for Measuring Affective Commitment

	Items	Sources
Affective commitment (AC)	AC1: I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. AC2: I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it. AC3: I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. AC4: I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R). AC5: I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R). AC6: I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R). AC7: This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. AC8: I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R).	Allen and Meyer (1990)

3.9 Pre-testing and Survey Refinement

Before starting data collection for main study, it is vital to assess whether the survey question and instrument is able to obtain information as per the necessity of research objectives. According to Reynolds and Diamantopoulos (1998) pre-testing is the part and parcel of the ultimate questionnaire development process. In order to identify possible

errors in the questionnaire, question sequencing and necessary instructions pre-testing is considered as an established practice (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Whenever the researches go for pre-testing, it lessens the complexities that may arise from ambiguous wording and biases (Sekaran, 2006; Zikmund, 2008). Therefore, all these matters indicate the necessity of pre-testing with respect to survey.

In order to pre-testing questionnaire, the study follows a brief interview with the head of department of branches of private commercial bank, University Professors, central bankers and expert from Bangladesh Institute of Bank Management. Earlier researchers suggested to employ personal interview in pretesting stage before survey (Reynolds & Diamantopoulos, 1998). Therefore, the current study employ personal interview in pretesting stage which is also suggested by Hunt, Sparkman Jr, and Wilcox (1982). In this process respondents fill up the questionnaire while the researcher makes vigilant observation.

Personal interview is an imperative issue to select respondent for pre-testing (Hunt et al., 1982). Therefore, the current study used convenient sampling and selects two central bankers from Bangladesh Bank, two university professors and three experts from Bangladesh institute of Bank management and three head of the department of branches from three private commercial banks for interview. Under the short personal interview method, the researcher requested the respondents to fill up the questionnaire under close supervision. After completion of the questionnaire the researcher of the current study asks all the participated respondents about the items of the questionnaire and their relevancy or any ambiguity presence in the questions. The three head of the department

of branches from three private commercial banks attended in this short personal interview in order to pre-testing the questionnaires were excluded from the original sample size.

In this study, all the target respondents were communicated to get their appointment as per their convenient time and place before conducting the short interview for pretesting. All the respondents were provided a set of questionnaire to answer the question along with the purpose of the assessment of each item. Initially the researcher of the current study requests the respondents to assess the questionnaire for the clarity check (words, its meaning and sentences), sequence and lay out as well as the appropriateness of the questions by which all the variables are measured. During the interview, the researcher also recorded the actual amount of time needed for respondents to fill up the questionnaire which was approximately 35 to 40 minutes. Finally, the respondents were requested to provide their valuable suggestions and remarks needed to be included to improve the quality of the questionnaire.

One respondent from central bank, one academician from University of Dhaka and one Assistant Professor from Bangladesh Institute of Bank Management identified some ambiguity regarding the wording of the questionnaire. They also provided suggestions for reversing some questions. As per their suggestions, the words were rephrased and replaced in the questionnaire. Some items were also reversed according to the suggestions.

Finally, based on the comments and suggestions provided by the experts in pre-test, the final set of questionnaire was prepared. In final set of structured questionnaire, all the suggestions and opinions provided by experts were adjusted and the final set of questionnaire is attached in appendix G. The following Table 3.7 summarizes the final constructs, total number of items, comments of experts, and action taken to prepare the final questionnaire.

Table 3. 7
Modified Items after Pretesting

Variable	Dimensions	No. of item	Comments	Action Taken
Informal workplace learning	Learning with others	4	Ambiguity in some words.	Rephrased and replaced.
	Self experimentation	4	Ambiguity in some words.	Rephrases and replaced.
	External scanning	4	Ambiguity in some words	Rephrased and replaced.
Human Resource Management practices	Selective hiring	5	Ambiguity in some words.	Rephrased and reversed.
			One item should reverse.	
	Extensive training	5	Ambiguity in some words	Rephrased
	Performance appraisal	6	Ambiguity in some words.	Rephrased and reversed.
			One item should reverse	
	Compensation practices	6	Ambiguity in some words	Rephrased
	Employment security	5	Ambiguity in some words	Rephrased,
			One item should reverse	and reversed
	Promotion opportunity	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased.
Transformational leadership style	Empowerment	5	Clear and understandable	
	Information Sharing	9	Rephrase some words	Rephrased.
	Idealized influence	8	Rephrase some words	Rephrased.
	Inspirational motivation	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased.
	Intellectual stimulation	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased.
	Individualized consideration	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased.

Transactional leadership style	Contingent reward	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased
	Active management-by-exception	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased
	Passive management - by-exception	4	Rephrase some words	Rephrased
Affective commitment		8	Rephrase some words.	Rephrased and
			Four items should be reversed	reversed
Total		97		

As per the expert opinion in all 12 items of informal workplace learning modification is done through rephrasing. For example, 'Informal one-on-one discussion with supervisor about some work situation' were rephrased by 'I involve in informal one-to-one discussion with manager about some work situation'. For making the questionnaire more convenient for the reader some additional words were added and some words were deleted in few items. For example, 'Spending time to reflect back how I dealt with a challenging work situation' were rephrased and replaced by 'I spend time to review how I deal with a challenging work situation'.

In 5 items of selective hiring 4 items were rephrased. In addition to that, one reverse coded item made direct. In 5 items of extensive training, items were rephrased. In case of performance appraisal, 1 reverse coded item made direct and 5 items were rephrased. Regarding compensation practices all items are rephrased. In employment security 1 reverse coded item made direct and remaining 4 are clear just replaced the word 'bank' instead of organization. In 4 items of promotion opportunity was rephrased and used word bank instead of organization in all items. All items of empowerment were clear. 5 items of information sharing were rephrased and remaining 4 items were clear. All items

of transformational and transactional leadership were rephrased by adding the word 'my manager'. Finally, in 8 items affective commitment 4 reverse coded items made direct and replace the word 'bank' instead of 'organization', for all 8 items.

3.10 Pilot Study Data Collection and Analysis

Pilot study is considered as the initial step of a research with a view to improve the reliability and efficiency of main research. Leon, Davis, and Kraemer (2011) mentioned that the main purpose of conducting pilot study is to test the feasibility of the proposed method that the researcher planned to apply in the main study. Similarly, De Vaus (1993) suggested that conduct pilot study first in order avert the risk in main study. One of the vital reasons for conducting pilot study is to have early warning about whether the main research could fail; whether research protocol may not be followed; or whether proposed approach or instruments are unsuitable or too complex (Van Teijlingen, Rennie, Hundley, & Graham, 2001). In addition to that, a pilot study is conducted to serve as a guide for large study (Zikmund, 2003). That is why, it can be termed as a minor scale of full study or trial run for the main study (Polit, Beck, & Hungler, 2001).

Based on the above suggestion, in order to ensure the appropriateness and clarity of the questions, pilot testing of the current study questionnaire was conducted. For determining the appropriate sample size for pilot testing there is no hard and fast rule. However, some researchers recommended some criteria to pin down the sample size. The study of Baker (1994) expose that 10-20% of the main study sample size is adequate for the pilot study.

On the other hand, Billingham, Whitehead, and Julious (2013) argue that to carried out pilot study, estimation of formal sample size is not necessary. Along with same line, Thabane et al. (2010) argue that it is evident that sample size should represent the study population rather than emphasizing on the number of sample. Besides, some earlier studies also advocates a range of sample size from 10 to 40 is enough for conducting a pilot study (Hertzog, 2008; Julious, 2005). Moreover, Van Belle (2011) recommends to use at least 12 samples for pilot study.

In this study, 38 samples size is used to carried out the pilot survey and samples are selected through convenient sampling from employees working as head of the department of branches of private commercial banks located in Dhaka division which is the main study area. The design of the pilot study should be as similar as possible to the design of the procedures in the original study, and the population selected to take part should be representative of the original population (though not part of it) (Smith, Morrow, and Ross 2015). This sample size also constitutes the four main departments of branches namely general, accounts, credit and foreign exchange. From the earlier discussion, this sample size is enough to carry out pilot survey and also represent the whole population. Though such survey does not give any guarantee of the ultimate survey but it increases the chances of future use. Such type of survey serves the benefits of research design, appropriateness of sampling frame and sampling techniques, research planning, viability of outcomes, and so on. In social science arena researchers are predominantly conducting quantitative research and argue that data applied for pilot testing should not use for the main study sample (Peat, Mellis, & Williams, 2002). The main reason is that if any

complexities identified in the pilot study and for this some adjustments or modifications are needed then it would impact the main study. Therefore, the study excludes this 38 sample from the main study to test hypotheses.

According to Peter (1979) reliability of a measurement scale can be assessed through three basic approaches namely test-retest, internal consistent, and alternative forms. Therefore, to assess the reliability of scale the researcher of the current study use the second approach 'internal consistent'. In this context, values of Cronbach's alpha are computed for assessing internal consistency of the constructs. This Cronbach's alpha specifies how well a single uni-dimensional latent construct is assessed by a set of variables (Schwaninger, Vogel, Hofer, & Schiele, 2006). The current researcher uses SPSS version 22 for assessing the reliability of all the scales.

Researcher assessed the corrected item-scale correlations and explains the effect on Cronbach's alpha when specific items were discarded with a view to test the relationships between all items and its perceived scales. A smaller alpha value indicates that individual item gives meager contribution to the overall scale (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Therefore, the current study considers a Cronbach's alpha value equal to or greater than 0.70. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of all the factors demonstrates the value higher than 0.70 which affirm the reliability of the scales and hence the study does not delete any items. Table 3.8 shows the Cronbach's alpha value of instrument scales.

Table 3. 8
Cronbach's Alpha of the Study Variables

Sl.No.	Variable Name	No. Items	Cornbach's Alpha
1	Selective hiring	5	0.712
2	Extensive training	5	0.745
3	Performance appraisal	6	0.900
4	Compensation practices	6	0.797
5	Employment security	5	0.722
6	Promotion opportunity	4	0.737
7	Empowerment	5	0.787
8	Information sharing	9	0.779
9	Idealized influence	8	0.893
10	Inspiration motivation	4	0.869
11	Intellectual stimulation	4	0.713
12	Individual consideration	4	0.916
13	Contingent reward	4	0.784
14	Active management-by-exception	4	0.892
15	Passive management-by-exception	4	0.88
16	Affective commitment	8	0.739
17	Learning with others	4	0.769
18	Self experimentation	4	0.704
19	External scanning	4	0.724
Total number of items		97	

3.11 Data Collection Procedures

After the pilot testing, survey for main research was conducted among the employees in branches of private commercial banks through the tested questionnaire. Earlier it is mentioned that the unit of analysis is the different head of the department of branches of private commercial banks. There are various methods to conduct survey such as survey through mail, telephone, email, face-to-face interview. According to Shariff (2003) survey through mail is commonly used by different researchers particularly when they require to collect a large amount of information by using formal questionnaire from the

greater group of population. Nevertheless, in most of the cases, respondents do not eager to fill up the questions if it is too long or complicated without any individual benefits (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). In this extent, respondents may take a lengthier time than usual. Moreover, employees working in branches of private commercial banks in Bangladesh survey through sending questionnaire via email is not possible. Most of the head of the department of branches do not have an email address by their name.

Conducting survey through telephone is very expensive and it is not feasible for longer questionnaire. Respondents sometimes may answer wrongly if they unable to listen accurately what the researchers ask. On the contrary, researcher can gather data directly from the respondents through a face-to-face interview. It is possible to collect correct information as the researcher can explain any confusion encountered by the respondents.

In order to collect data from the respondents, researcher in the study sends a written request seeking permission to carry out this study which was submitted to the authority through the Human Resource Department (HRD) of the particular bank. The request involved a brief explanation of the research study, the procedure for the distribution and collection of the completed questionnaires, and the approximate time frame in which the survey would be carried out. After getting the approval from the authority of the organization, current researcher followed drop off/pick up (DOPU) method for distributing and collecting the questionnaires. Recently a number of studies used this method for collection of data (Qader & Zainuddin, 2011). This method helps to reduce non-coverage error and minimize probable sample bias without dipping response rate

(Steele et al., 2001). This approach also provides the opportunity to collect entire filled up questionnaire. Moreover, some additional clarification can be given for any item where the respondents require further clarification. Furthermore, it minimizes interviewer bias effect and allows respondents to fill up the questionnaire alone as per their own time (Allred & Ross-Davis, 2011). In addition, by this method, interviewer can encourage the respondents to participate in the survey with a view to have their genuine opinions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Researcher can also use a follow-up reminder to swift the questionnaire collection.

For collecting data, two enumerators have been appointed from 'Bangladesh Institute of Bank Management (BIBM)' (for additional information, visit www.bibm.org.bd), the highest training institute for the banking professionals in Bangladesh. One of the important regular functions of this institute is to carry out various researches for the welfare of banking community where study on workplace learning is also remarkable. Enumerators went to different remote areas of branches of private commercial banks under the close supervision of researcher. Researcher provided basic training to them before conducting the survey in order to make them understand the questionnaire. Later on, they went to the field for collecting data and made necessary clarifications to the respondents. Researcher also visited most of the areas to complete the survey. Researcher of the current study collected questionnaires within a three months period (beginning - March to end of May 2017) of dropping off.

3.12 Data Analysis Techniques

Both descriptive and inferential statistics are used in this study to analyze the data. For describing the profile of the respondents' that is used in section 'E' of the questionnaire descriptive statistics is used. Various inferential statistical techniques are used for analyzing data and other hypothesis testing. By using conventional (first generation) regression based technique like multiple regression analysis, discriminant functional analysis and logistic regression analysis of variance data analysis can be done. However, the model used in this study may not be assessed by these techniques because of some pitfalls shown in their assumptions. These techniques presume that the model that is assessed should be a simple structure and all the variables consist in the model can be considered observable as well as all the variables are calculated without error (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). But in reality these assumptions are not appropriate and it is highly restrictive for explaining more multifaceted and realistic situations (Shugan, 2002). Basically, for measuring the accurate score of the variables both random and systematic error must be taken into consideration (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991). Unfortunately, first generation techniques are not considered these errors and are quite incapable to describe the reality (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004).

In order to achieve the objective of the analysis, the current study considered the second generation technique that is Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to remove the pitfalls associated with first generation techniques. Researchers can measure concurrently the series of interrelated dependent association through analyzing highly complex model by

the application Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000). SEM can also overcome the second and third limitation of first generation technique. This technique permits researchers to create latent variables by the indicators and their estimation error in same model (Chin, 1998; Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). Hence, it can be said that the second generation techniques, the structural equation modelling, are able to overcome the drawbacks of first generation techniques (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013).

SEM is a statistical approach designed with a view to test a conceptual or theoretical model. SEM permits the researcher to determine prior unknown relationship between latent variables and reveal more meaningful insight. It is a multivariate technique that integrate the aspects of multiple regression and factor analysis to test the series of interconnected dependence relationships concurrently (Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Many other technique like recursive path analysis, principal component analysis, non-recursive econometric modeling, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and covariance and classical test theory are integrated through SEM (Holmes-Smith, 2001). Besides, it is also considered as a path analysis with latent variables in order to show dependency association among multivariate data (McDonald & Ho, 2002).

From the previous studies (Geertshuis, Holmes, Geertshuis, Clancy, & Bristol, 2002) on workplace learning, it is evident that many researchers used multivariate statistical techniques in order to understand different factors that lead to informal workplace learning. The regular use of multivariate methods is indicating the fact that the

enhancement of informal workplace learning is influenced by the multiplicity of factors with complex relationships.

It is possible for SEM to assess each individual construct validity, reliability, and the unidimensionality (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). In addition to that, SEM provides an overall test of model fit and measures the tests of individual parameter instantaneously and therefore, gives the best model fits. Urbach and Ahlemann (2010) pointed out that SEM is a combination of interrelated model which can be measured simultaneously, which are:

- a) The measurement model (outer model) that explain the relationship between empirically observable parameters and the latent variables.
- b) The structural model (inner model) that explain the association between latent variables.

In case of measurement model, Hair et al. (2013) suggested that a hypothesis tests generally include the structural association among all the constructs and are valid or reliable only when the measurement models describe in which way these constructs are measured. Regarding structural model, it is essential to consider two significant issues such as firstly the sequence of the constructs and their association which signify the hypotheses and secondly their association to the theory being tested (Hair et al., 2013). In structural model they also suggested that the sequence of the constructs must be based on the theory, real experiences and certain logic that observed by the researcher.

3.13 Selecting Partial Least Square (PLS) or Covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM)

Generally there are two diverse type of SEM namely the CB-SEM which is also known as covariance-based SEM and the partial least square SEM (PLS-SEM) which is also known as variance based SEM. During the last two decades CB-SEM has got into significant attention and has been exhibited by different software such as AMOS, COSAN, LISREL. On the contrary, PLS-SEM has been exhibited by the software such as PLS Smart and PLS Graph. Urbach and Ahlemann (2010) pointed out that Covariance approach is considered by CB-SEM where a maximum likelihood (ML) function is used to decrease the discrepancy between sample covariance and those encompass by the theoretical model. They also mentioned that maximum likelihood function can be used only when the observed variable must match the normal distribution supposition as needed by CB-SEM. Furthermore, the CB-SEM needs a large number of sample sizes where the minimum suggested sample size is 200 to 800 cases (Chin & Newsted, 1999).

By applying loadings and path values covariance-based SEM attempt to measure the parameter of the model which decreases difference between sample covariance and those encompass by theoretical model (Barroso, Carrión, & Roldán, 2010). Therefore, the explicit parameter measurement process attempt to decrease the covariance matrix of the experimental measures' overall fit (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). Based on this point of view it can be said that CB-SEM technique is more related towards testing a theory and is more appropriate for confirmatory research (Gefen et al., 2000).

Dissimilar to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM is a causal modeling approach that attempt to maximize the described variance of the dependent latent construct (Hair et al., 2013) rather than concentrating on covariance (i.e, explained the association between items). The purpose of PLS-SEM is to maximize the variance (liklihood) of the dependent variable that are interpreted by the independent variables (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004) as well as therefore increase the predictive power.

Theoretically, PLS-SEM is somewhat alike with multiple regression analysis that tests the possible relationships by focusing less on the measurement model (Hair et al., 2013; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). But practically, PLS-SEM is used for the theory development, theory confirmation, and most appropriate for proposition development by association between variable (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). This approach needs fewer requirements as compared to CB-SEM and provides consistent measurement results (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). As against to CB-SEM that can deal with only the reflective data, PLS-SEM can deal with both formative and reflective constructs even if it cover in one structural equation model. Furthermore, PLS-SEM is considered as a soft modelling technique for its more flexible assumptions which are necessary to meet as compared with CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2011). Urbach and Ahlemann (2010) provided some arguments why PLS-SEM is favorable as a statistical means with a view to test SEM models. These are: (1) it requires less demands regarding sample size (2) it can apply in a complex structural models with multiple number of constructs (3) it does not require normally distributed data (4) it is appropriate for both the theory development and testing, and (5) it is particularly suitable for prediction and so on.

Regarding objectives, basic statistical assumptions and the nature of the fit statistic produced PLS-SEM and CV-SEM are differ with each other in a mentionable number of ways, (Gefen et al., 2000). Hence, based on the researcher's objective, the selection of PLS-SEM or CB-SEM is usually performed. There are some rules of thumb which should be considered for selecting CB-SEM or PLS-SEM. The different rules between CB-SEM and PLS-SEM are shown in Table 3.9.

The current study considers PLS-SEM is an appropriate technique for analyzing the data of the proposed model. It is a method for developing predictive models in a certain case when factors are multiple and highly collinear. The purpose of the current study is to predict the informal workplace learning through using some organizational factors as independent variables and personal factor as mediating variable and therefore the model is complex. In case of complex predictive models PLS is more appropriate as this is the confirmatory, multivariate and second-generation analysis technique. Authors (such as, Gefen et al., 2000; Hair et al., 2011; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010) argued that PLS is more suitable for testing complex models, especially for models involving mediators, or moderators or both. PLS has capability to deal with reflective and decisive indicators, multicollinearity and robustness (Gefen et al., 2000). PLS focus on predicting the feedback rather than attempt to understand the basic relationship between the variables. PLS enables the researchers to explain the relationship among many latent variables simultaneously and also identified as distinct second generation technique which are properly-matched to work with measurement models that involves both reflective and formative indicators (Chin & Newsted, 1999; Hair et al., 2010).

Table 3. 9
Grounded Rules for Selecting CB-SEM or PLS-SEM

Criteria	PLS-SEM	CB-SEM
Research objective	When the objective of a research is predicting main target constructs or searching main driver constructs and also apply for the exploratory study or extension of an prevailing structural theory, select PLS-SEM.	When the goal of the study is testing theory or confirmation of theory, or even evaluation of alternative theories, select CB-SEM.
Measurement Model Specification	PLS-SEM is appropriate for both formative and reflective mode.	When error terms needs additional specification, like covariation, choose CB-SEM. Generally deals only with reflective mode. Formative mode can, also be used in CB-SEM for comparatively complex and restrictive specification rules.
Structural Model	when structural model contains multiple constructs and a number of indicators that is complex in nature, choose PLS-SEM.	Select CB-SEM in case of non-recursive model.
Nature of data and Algorithm	PLS-SEM is a better estimation of CB-SEM outcome for data that do not fulfill the conditions of CB-SEM assumptions. when data are to certain extent non-normal, select PLS-SEM.	when data fulfills all the CB-SEM assumptions appropriately, for instance, in respect to minimum sample size as well as the distributional supposition, select CB-SEM.
Consideration s of Sample size	When the sample size is comparatively low, choose PLS-SEM. From 30 to 100 cases is the minimum recommended range.	When data set is large, CB-SEM and PLS-SEM produce similar results. 200 to 800 cases is the minimum recommended range.
Evaluation of Model	For measuring latent variable scores in consecutive analyses, the best option is PLS-SEM.	CB-SEM is the preferred option for the research which needed a global goodness-of-fit criterion, as well as testing measurement model invariance.

Source: Hair et al. (2011)

PLS deals with principal component analysis and the PLS factors are normally orthogonal by its definition. Therefore, the measurement drive will be relatively robust even when there is multicolliniarity exist in the data (Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999). Furthermore, PLS-SEM is well-known to be robust when applied on highly skewed, ordinal, nominal as well as ratio scale variables (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009).

Indeed, in PLS the projecting capability of the constructs is boosted and it stated the performance of the each scale items (Eikebrokk & Olsen, 2007).

3.14 Reflective and Formative Measurement Models

The measurement theory that described the measurement model which indicates how the latent variables are measured (Hair et al., 2013). The measurement model is formulated by the measurements under variables. The outer model or measurement model is predominantly depended on the association between indicators and latent variable (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Generally, there are two different types of approaches used to measure unobservable variables which are reflective and the formative measurement. In SEM, all the indicators of the measurement model are considered as either reflective indicators or formative indicators. As the correct measurement is required to derive some meaningful relationship in the structural model, according to the argument of the scholar, it is essential to differentiate between formative and reflective measure (Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008). Reflective indicators implies the notion that indicators reflect, effects or cause the latent variable and can be found as a representation of the construct (Hair et al., 2011; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

Reflective indicators assess the same underlying concept and for this it perceives as uni-dimensionally correlated (Gefen et al., 2000) . Hence, for any changes or modifications in latent variable, all the reflective indicators consists in the latent variable will change correspondingly (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). In the structural equation model (SEM), a

latent variable that consist reflective indicators is shown by the arrow that starts from the latent variable to the indicators.

However, formative indicators on the other hand represent various dimensions on the latent construct that cause or formulate the latent construct (Chin, 1998; Gefen et al., 2000). Not like reflective model, formative model does not presume that all the measures are caused by a single underlying construct, rather all measures have an effect on a single construct (Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). Moreover, formative indicators are not necessary to be correlated (Gefen et al., 2000) which indicates that increase in one indicator does not necessary to move with other indicators of the construct (Chin & Newsted, 1999) . All the constructs used in the current study are modeled as reflective measurement models. Constructs of the current study were adapted from some earlier studies (see section 3.8) that have gone through a laborious scale development process that emphasize on the items inter-correlations, common variance, uni-dimensionality and internal consistency and in such way represent all the features of reflective measurement model (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006).

3.15 Higher Order Model (HOM)

Higher order constructs allow more theoretical parsimony and reduce model complexity (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005; Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder, & Van Oppen, 2009). According to Hair et al. (2013), when a model consists of more than 7 variables and 50 items is considered as a complex model. A researcher can reduce the number of

relationships in the structural model through higher order construct that help to form the PLS path model more parsimonious and easier and can minimize the problem when constructs are extremely correlated (Hair et al., 2013). HOM can be either formative or reflective. Reflective type refers to overall attitude where every dimensions reflects discrete attitudinal dimensions, whereas the formative type denotes an accumulation of individual views into a single summary representation (Chin & Gopal, 1995). According to Coltman et al. (2008) in reflective model all the items represent a common theme and hence the adding or deleting of an item does not change the theoretical domain of the construct.

Hair et al. (2013) explained that there are four main types of hierarchical order model like reflective-reflective type I, reflective-formative type II, formative-reflective type III, and formative-formative type IV. In the current research framework, three latent variables transformational leadership, transactional leadership (independent variable) and informational workplace learning (dependent variable) formed second order construct and demonstrate the reflective-reflective type I of hierarchical order model. All the first order and second order construct shares the common themes. Moreover, the deleting of any first order construct will not alter the sense of the second order. In PLS-SEM, there are three main approaches to model higher order latent construct such as repeated indicator approach, two-stage approach and the hybrid approach (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012). The current study used the reflective-reflective higher order model and follows repeated indicator approach to demonstrate the higher order relationship as per the suggestion provided by Hair et al. (2013). According to this approach second order

construct represents all the manifest variables of the underlying first-order latent variable (Lohmöller, 1989).

3.16 Evaluation of PLS Path Model Results

Two-steps process involves in PLS model estimation and interpretation namely assessment of the measurement model and the structural model (Hair et al., 2011). The evaluation criteria for PLS path model result are described below in following sections.

3.16.1 Assessment of the Measurement Model

The prime focus in assessing the measurement model is to identify the validity and reliability of the measurement items. The assessment process of measurement model includes four standards that will be considered to identify the validity of the measurement model. Two validity measurements like discriminant validity and convergent validity are measurement through these four standards (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). For convergent validity and discriminant validity composite reliability, indicator reliability, average variance extracted (AVE), and Fornell-Larcker criterion and/ or cross loadings are considered.

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008) convergent validity refers to the degree where scores of one scale correlates with scores of another scales which are designed to measure the same construct factor loading. Hair et al. (2013) explains that convergent validity indicates the extent to which multiple items estimated the same construct and

should converge or distribute a greater proportion of variance in common. Convergent validity was measured through the factor loadings and composite reliability as well as average variance extracted (AVE). Afterwards, the square root of the AVE was measured to calculate the discriminant validity.

In case of assessing the quality of formative measures, the measurement of indicators' weights that involves the examination of significance has been recommended (Hair et al., 2011). In addition, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) should also be tested to measure the level of multicollinearity as indicators' information may become redundant for greater level of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2011). Regarding PLS-SEM the cut-off value for VIF is suggested as 5 in order to identify the multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2011). Whenever the value of VIF exceeds 5, it shows the existence of multicollinearity and hence it is recommended to delete the indicator to make the VIF accepted.

3.16.2 Assessment of Structural Model

After confirming the suitability of the measure, it is necessary to provide evidences that support the theoretical model as shown by the structural portion of the model (Chin, 2010). According to Duarte and Raposo (2010) structural model describes the relationship between latent variable hypothesized in the research model. Like measurement model, for examining the structural model researcher needs to comply with various criteria. The coefficient of determination (R^2) and the level of significance of the path coefficients, standard error, t-value and p-value are considered as the focal

evaluation criteria for structural model (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). Since the prime goal of SEM-PLS is to describe the endogenous latent variance, the main objective is to obtain the higher R^2 .

Based on the path coefficient value and p-values, decision for supported or not supported hypothesis was come out. T-value higher than 1.65 and p-value smaller than 0.05 were considered significant and supported respectively. Path coefficients demonstrates the hypothesized relationship among the constructs (Hair et al., 2013). The single path coefficients of the structural model can be measured as standardized beta coefficients of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression. Paths that are insignificant or demonstrate opposite sign of the hypothesized direction are deemed not supportive of the given hypothesis in the research (Hair et al., 2011). The path coefficients have standardized values between -1 and +1. Calculated path coefficients close to +1 indicates strong positive relationship and value near to -1 denotes the opposite (Hair et al., 2013).

3.17 Testing Mediation in PLS

According to Iacobucci, Saldanha, and Deng (2007) a mediator can be stated as an intervening variable by which an independent variable is supposed to have an effect on a dependent variable. Therefore, mediation effect of this study has been tested as suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2008) and Hayes (2009), although the basic approach provided by Baron and Kenny (1986) for examining empirical evidence were largely used.

The causal step approach is the most widely used method popularized by Baron and Kenny (1986) which needs to measure each of the paths in the model and then identify whether a variable works as mediator by observing if certain statistical condition are satisfied. For instance, if both a and b paths in a particular model are significant statistically and c' is nearer to zero than c , then M is considered as a mediator of the relationship between X and Y . Researcher can assess mediation whether data satisfy these criteria only where indication of a total effect of X (i.e., if c is statistically significant), which is one of the requirements of mediation stated by Baron and Kenny (1986). In addition to that, full and partial mediation concept is rooted in Baron and Kenny's method. However, the current literature on mediation advocates that full and partial mediation concepts have little value and should be abandoned (Hayes, 2013; Hayes & Rockwood, 2016; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011). Full mediation indicates that a researcher has completely describe the process by which X influences Y and no additional research is needed to search for further mediators (Hayes & Rockwood, 2016).

The reality is that to claim full mediation, one would have to have confidently measured all possible mediators and suppressors without error. Nevertheless, measuring variables without error in social science and business research is practically impossible. Hence, 'one cannot ever claim to have established full mediation' (Rucker et al., 2011, p. 369). Similarly, the claim of partial mediation is a celebration of mis-specified model (Hayes, 2013). It indicates that something is missing in that model. When researchers claim that M partially mediates the relationship between X and Y , they are admitting that part of

X's effect on Y has not been accounted for by M. A number of researchers such as, Hayes, (2013), Hayes & Rockwood, (2016) and Rungtusanatham, Miller, & Boyer, (2014) suggested that researchers should avoid using the terms full and partial mediation when developing a mediation hypothesis or interpreting mediation effects. Therefore, Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) pointed out that, there are some weaknesses inherent in the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach and it suffers from low statistical power in most of the cases. In order to overcome the pitfalls of Baron and Kenny (1986), researcher should use Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) bootstrapping method for analyzing mediation. There are no assumptions about the sample size and distribution of sampling in bootstrapping approach and applies in small size with more confidence. It is perfectly suited for PLS-SEM method and works for multiple and simple mediator model with greater level of statistical confidence.

Generally, in SEM-PLS path model mediation can be measured by testing the link of the direct relationship between two latent variables and the indirect link through the possible mediating variable (path from the predictor to the mediating variable and path from the mediating variable to the endogenous variable) (Eberl, 2010). However, as per Preacher and Hayes (2008), mediation effect exists between two relationships if the indirect path is statistically significant. Therefore, a vital component of mediation is a practically and statistically significant indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

The current study follows the concept of Preacher and Hayes (2008) to measure the mediation effect of the variable. With the non-parametric path modeling approach, a non-

parametric bootstrapping procedure has been carried out to test the significance of the mediating effect as recommended by Hair et al. (2013). In PLS bootstrapping indirect effect shows t-value higher than 1.65 and p-value smaller than 0.05 has been considered significant and supported mediation.

3.18 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter begins with the research design through which the research questions were answered and objectives were achieved. A quantitative research design is employed for describing the phenomenon. A detail form of instructions on how the study performed the operational variables that necessary to be measured, sampled, and collected with a view to test the research hypotheses were presented. The operational measurements of the study variables were provided where the number of items to measure each variable and their respective sources were presented. The study considered total 97 items for each of the independent, dependent, and mediating variable based on the scale developed by some earlier studies. This chapter thoroughly discussed the pre-testing of the questionnaire, pilot-testing to finalize it, procedures of collecting data and the preparation of data. Finally, some other crucial discussions regarding SEM-PLS with its appropriateness to the research have also been made to understand the concept of SEM-PLS.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the statistical results of data analysis and research findings. Both descriptive and inferential statistics used in the study to analyze data. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and the structural equation modelling with partial least squares (SEM-PLS) methods are considered for this purpose. This chapter begins with the data collection and response rate succeeded by data preparation and screening that involves missing value analysis, outlier identification, normality, and the multicollinearity test. In order to examine common method bias which may impact the results, Harman's single factor test was conducted. In addition, the profiles of respondents along with descriptive statistics of the constructs are reported. The later sections of this chapter explain the results of the study derived through SEM-PLS and also involve the measurement model for goodness of measures, structural model for hypotheses testing and the effects of mediators.

4.2 Data Collection and Response Rate

Data collection starts at the beginning of March, 2017; then, after numerous visits for recovery of the questionnaires, the survey ended at the end of May, 2017. The target respondents for the current study were employees working as head of the department of

branches of private commercial banks located in Dhaka division of Bangladesh. Data collection was completed through questionnaires which were distributed systematically among employees working as head of the department of branches of private commercial banks.

The total survey process comprised of several visits to the premises of branches of private commercial banks located within the study area. The survey questionnaires were distributed to respondents by the researcher or his team in the first visit. The entire completed questionnaires were collected from the respondents in the subsequent visits. Hence, the survey instruments were picked up within three months (beginning of March-end of May, 2017) of dropping off.

As mentioned in Chapter Three, the entire sample size is 364 and the researcher of the study systematically distributed double of that number, 728 questionnaires. It was done to reduce the sampling error and to minimize the non-response rate. Out of these 728 questionnaires, 403 questionnaires were received within the survey time from the selected division. The overall response rate of this survey was 55.35%.

There is no consensus regarding standard for a minimal acceptable response rate (Fowler, 2002), Hayes (2000) recommended that a normal questionnaire response rate between 20% and 30% can be considerable. According to Smith, Scammon, and Beck (1995) response rate as low as 30% is considered as reasonable for analysis of data. Some previous studies in Bangladesh related to Bank research found the response rate of

58.57% (Rahman, Abdul, Ali, Uddin, & Rahman, 2017) and 14% (Islam, Khan, Obaidullah, & Alam, 2011). Moreover, Iacobucci and Churchill (2009), O'Sullivan and Abela (2007) in their study mentioned that response rate of 12 to 20 per cent is satisfactory. Therefore, the retrieved responses for the current study is 55.35% which are considered as sufficient for data analysis.

4.3 Data Preparation and Screening

The data preparation for analysis was done after collecting data through structured questionnaire. The responses were checked to determine if there were inconsistency, omissions, straight line response, or vagueness. Out of the 403 retrieved questionnaires, 381 are valid while 22 are dropped because of inconsistent information, missing values, and outliers. In such situation, Kumar, Talib, and Ramayah (2013) suggests that such cases be thrown out.

4.3.1 Data Coding and Detection of Entry Error

The current study used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 to prepare data. In order to identify the outlier, serial number was given in each case. At the very beginning all the demographic variables were labelled by using SPSS variable view. In the next stage, all the items consists in the questionnaire were labelled with a code as take place as: selective hiring items are labeled as SH1-SH5, extensive training as ET1-ET5, performance appraisal as PA1-PA6, compensation practices as CP1-CP6,

employment security as ES1-ES5, promotion opportunity as PO1-PO4, empowerment as EP1-EP5, information sharing as IS1-IS9, idealized influence as IDI1-IDI8, inspirational motivation as IM1-IM4, intellectual stimulation as INST1-INST4, individualized consideration IC1-IC4, contingent reward as CR1-CR4, active management by exception as AME1-AME4, passive management by exception as PME1-PME4, affective commitment as AC1-AC8, learning with others as LWO1-LWO4, self experimentation as SE1-SE4, and external scanning as EXTS1-EXTS4 all in separate columns, respectively. The width, decimal, values, type were also identified in accordance with data coding and entry process demonstrated by Green and Salkind (2010) and Coakes and Steed (2009). After the data was keyed-in, a frequency was run in order to detect data entry error. There were 2 errors detected, which are 'out of range' entry error. The errors were corrected accordingly.

4.3.2 Analysis of Missing Values

There are a number of analyses methods that do not admit data with missing values (Hair et al., 2010). Missing data emerges when respondents failed to report one or more items in the survey. After collecting the completed questionnaires, researcher of the current study checked one by one manually to detect any missing value. Subsequently, after input into the SPSS, the study researcher further checked for missing value by the help of descriptive analyses. Due to missing values the researcher excluded 9 questionnaires from the total collection of questionnaires.

Three (3) missing values were identified from the demographic variables of respondents. In case of educational qualification, two respondents had not answered. Beside this, in case of experience, one respondent had not reported. They might be hesitated to disclose their educational qualifications and experience. Other demographic variables associated with respondents recorded no missing value. Besides, missing value was also found in variables such as information sharing, item number 6 (IS6), idealized influence, item number 8 (IDI8), individualized consideration, item number 3 (IC3), active management by exception, item number 4 (AME4), affective commitment, item number 7 (AC7) and self experimentation, item number 4 (SE4). Each of them was detected with one (1) missing value.

No missing values were identified for the constructs human resource management practices except information sharing. Missing values were also not detected in some dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership style as well as informal workplace learning as followed: inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, passive management by exception, learning with others, and external scanning. Table 4.1 demonstrates the missing value analysis and the number of entire missing values. As per Cohen and Cohen (1983), missing value emerges problems if the overall value of missing is more than 10 per cent. However, the current study detected a total number of nine (9) missing values, which is just only 2.23 percent and inconsiderable. As the study received more responses (403) than the total sample size 364, these nine (9) questionnaires were excluded from the final data set and 394 questionnaires were kept for further analysis.

Table 4.1
Missing value Analysis

Particular of Respondents		Gender	Age	Education	Experience	Work Division				
N	Valid	403	403	401	402	403				
	Missing	0	0	2	1	0				
Selective Hiring										
N		SH1	SH2	SH3	SH4	SH5				
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403				
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0				
Extensive Training										
N		ET1	ET2	ET3	ET4	ET5				
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403				
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0				
Performance Appraisal										
N		PA1	PA2	PA3	PA4	PA5	PA6			
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403	403			
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0			
Compensation Practices										
N		CP1	CP2	CP3	CP4	CP5	CP6			
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403	403			
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0			
Employment Security										
N		ES1	ES2	ES3	ES4	ES5				
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403				
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0				
Promotion Opportunity										
N		PO1	PO2	PO3	PO4					
	Valid	403	403	403	403					
	Missing	0	0	0	0					
Empowerment										
N		EP1	EP2	EP3	EP4	EP5				
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403				
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0				
Information Sharing										
N		IS1	IS2	IS3	IS4	IS5	IS6	IS7	IS8	IS9
	Valid	403	403	403	403	403	402	403	403	403

Missing	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
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Idealized Influence

		IDI1	IDI2	IDI3	IDI4	IDI5	IDI6	IDI7	IDI8
N	Valid	403	403	403	403	403	403	403	402
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Inspirational Motivation

		IM1	IM2	IM3	IM4
N	Valid	403	403	403	403
	Missing	0	0	0	0

Intellectual Stimulation

		INTST1	INTST2	INTST3	INTST4
N	Valid	403	403	403	403
	Missing	0	0	0	0

Individualized Consideration

		IC1	IC2	IC3	IC4
N	Valid	403	403	402	403
	Missing	0	0	1	0

Contingent Reward

		CR1	CR2	CR3	CR4
N	Valid	403	403	403	403
	Missing	0	0	0	0

Active management-by-exception

		AME1	AME2	AME3	AME4
N	Valid	403	403	403	402
	Missing	0	0	0	1

Passive management-by-exception

		PME1	PME2	PME3	PME4
N	Valid	403	403	403	403
	Missing	0	0	0	0

Affective Commitment

		AC1	AC2	AC3	AC4	AC5	AC6	AC7	AC8
N	Valid	403	403	403	403	403	403	402	403
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Learning with others

		LWO1	LWO2	LWO3	LWO4
N	Valid	403	403	403	403

Missing	0	0	0	0
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Self-experimentation

		SE1	SE2	SE3	SE4
N	Valid	403	403	403	402
	Missing	0	0	0	1

External Scanning

		EXTS1	EXTS2	EXTS3	EXTS4
N	Valid	403	403	403	403
	Missing	0	0	0	0

Note: SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO = Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, IDI = Idealized influence, IM = Inspirational motivation, INTST = Intellectual stimulation, IC = individualized consideration, CR = Contingent reward, AME = Active management-by-exception, PME = Passive management-by-exception, AC = Affective commitment, LWO = Learning with others, SE = Self-experimentation, and EXTS = External scanning.

4.3.3 Identification of Outliers

The term outlier refers to an observation point that distance from other observations.

Outliers are supposed to emerge when there are extreme scores for some cases, which are considerably different from the rest of the respondents. Regarding statistical data analysis, outlier undesirably impact the outcome (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2009; Kumar et al., 2013). Researcher of the study used Mahalanobis Distance (D^2) technique to identify outliers out of the several techniques of identifying univariate and multivariate outliers (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This technique assesses the situation of each observation and equates it with the centre of all observations on a set of variables (Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black, 2007).

In order to create the Mahalanobis distance, the current study used SPSS version 22 and pursued the linear regression parameters. SPSS generate a new column in the data set

namely MAH_1 for each case, which was compared with the Chi square value. According to rule of thumb, the highest Mahalanobis distance should not surpass the critical Chi-squared value with degree of freedom equivalent to the total number of predictor and $\alpha=.001$; if it is not, the outliers may be problematic in the data (Pallant, 2011). The current study researcher used the Chi square table to detect the Chi square value. The following Table 4.2 shows the residual statistics from the SPSS output.

Table 4.2
Residuals Statistics^a from SPSS Output for testing the Mahalanobis Distance

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.5333	5.3362	4.3280	.46546	394
Std. Predicted Value	-6.004	2.166	.000	1.000	394
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.094	.326	.171	.028	394
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.2377	5.3836	4.3278	.47067	394
Residual	-1.52117	1.02587	.00000	.32795	394
Std. Residual	-4.106	2.769	.000	.885	394
Stud. Residual	-5.000	3.232	.000	1.023	394
Deleted Residual	-2.25545	1.39738	.00028	.44173	394
Stud. Deleted Residual	-5.208	3.283	-.001	1.030	394
Mahal. Distance	24.264	303.688	84.784	30.454	394
Cook's Distance	.000	.140	.004	.011	394
Centered Leverage Value	.062	.773	.216	.077	394

a. Dependent Variable: Alwo

As per the Table 4.2, the maximum Mahal. Distance is 303.688, whereas the Chi square value is 128.299. According to the criteria, 13 observations were found as outliers. Table 4.3 demonstrates the number of outliers with the case number. The study also calculates the probability through SPSS. A probability of smaller than 0.001 indicates an outlier as per criteria. Therefore, the 13 cases were identified as outliers (see Table 4.3). As the sample size is satisfactory for analysis and the total number of questionnaires is still

higher than the required sample size, the study dropped these 13 cases from 394 cases and 381 questionnaires were used for the final analysis. Finally, it may be concluded that there is no existence of multivariate outliers in this dataset.

Table 4.3
Detection of Outlier

Number	Observation cases	Mahalanobis Distance (D^2)	Probability
1	27	168.83545	0.000000
2	55	174.97224	0.000000
3	61	178.95194	0.000000
4	76	190.1141	0.000000
5	79	188.17752	0.000000
6	84	164.16059	0.000000
7	131	151.70792	0.000010
8	167	157.7257	0.000000
9	174	191.73911	0.000000
10	205	276.13701	0.000000
11	209	303.68788	0.000000
12	221	130.78085	0.000830
13	306	222.66825	0.000000

4.3.4 Test of Normality

In case of covariance based structural equation modelling an assessment of the normality of data is prerequisite for several statistical tests (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Hair et al., 2007). The normal data is the basic assumption in parametric testing. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2007) (P. 48) normality means “symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle with smaller frequencies towards the extremes”. There are several ways to test the normality of data, for instance, graphics

and statistics where the normal probability plots (Q-Q Plot), scattered plot, boxplot, under the graphics form and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks, Skewness and Kurtosis in the statistics method are generally used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to assess the normality of data the current study followed the procedure given in Pallant (2011).

Two important statistical techniques were considered to measure the distribution of the data. As suggested by Hair et al., (2007), for skewness and kurtosis, data is not normally distributed while the z-value exceeds ± 2.58 . The z-score is determined by dividing the skewness and kurtosis' statistics by the particular standard error (Pallant, 2011). Table 4.4 demonstrates the value of skewness and kurtosis statistics and the z scores. From Table 4.4, it is clear that the z-values for many items (un-bolded) exceed the benchmark, thereby specifying that some data have deviated from normality.

Table 4.4
Skewness and Kurtosis Analysis

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness			Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Z-values	Statistic	Std. Error	Z-values
SH1	4.43	.717	-1.670	.125	-13.357	4.664	.249	18.70323
SH2	3.82	.996	-.636	.125	-5.091	-.204	.249	-0.81891
SH3	4.30	.737	-1.100	.125	-8.798	1.674	.249	6.712087
SH4	4.31	.735	-1.039	.125	-8.316	1.382	.249	5.543284
SH5	4.13	.790	-.945	.125	-7.556	1.413	.249	5.665979
ET1	3.77	1.105	-.715	.125	-5.719	-.310	.249	-1.2422
ET2	4.04	.804	-.923	.125	-7.381	1.323	.249	5.30746
ET3	4.41	.661	-.954	.125	-7.630	.933	.249	3.741622
ET4	4.30	.712	-1.002	.125	-8.015	1.303	.249	5.224581
ET5	4.09	.809	-.853	.125	-6.821	.720	.249	2.886903
PA1	4.21	.728	-.798	.125	-6.387	.959	.249	3.847173
PA2	4.05	.745	-.690	.125	-5.517	.834	.249	3.345867

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error	Z-values	Kurtosis	Std. Error	Z-values
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic			Statistic		
PA3	4.14	.762	-.808	.125	-6.466	.877	.249	3.517801
PA4	4.26	.770	-1.109	.125	-8.869	1.881	.249	7.544723
PA5	4.31	.664	-.985	.125	-7.879	2.250	.249	9.021392
PA6	4.13	.747	-.933	.125	-7.462	1.683	.249	6.749396
CP1	3.66	.846	-.642	.125	-5.138	.174	.249	0.696785
CP2	3.75	.843	-.530	.125	-4.243	.332	.249	1.33077
CP3	3.47	.863	-.211	.125	-1.687	-.445	.249	-1.78411
CP4	3.63	1.034	-.595	.125	-4.760	-.175	.249	-0.70109
CP5	3.80	.991	-.784	.125	-6.268	.200	.249	0.800401
CP6	3.71	.788	-.670	.125	-5.363	.488	.249	1.958554
ES1	3.74	.961	-.496	.125	-3.964	-.283	.249	-1.13678
ES2	3.41	.907	-.546	.125	-4.367	-.074	.249	-0.29732
ES3	4.09	.751	-.518	.125	-4.147	.176	.249	0.704648
ES4	3.86	.848	-.841	.125	-6.726	.595	.249	2.385184
ES5	3.67	.835	-.374	.125	-2.994	-.223	.249	-0.89405
PO1	4.00	.667	-.372	.125	-2.973	.390	.249	1.563876
PO2	3.88	.664	-.352	.125	-2.813	.388	.249	1.554938
PO3	3.72	.693	-.139	.125	-1.110	-.132	.249	-0.52924
PO4	3.84	.772	-.307	.125	-2.459	-.223	.249	-0.89449
EP1	4.07	.724	-.485	.125	-3.877	.119	.249	0.4775
EP2	4.56	.528	-.561	.125	-4.490	-.995	.249	-3.98964
EP3	4.24	.903	-1.099	.125	-8.792	.410	.249	1.645218
EP4	3.85	.814	-.754	.125	-6.035	.952	.249	3.816858
EP5	4.05	.821	-.896	.125	-7.169	.948	.249	3.801952
IS1	3.98	.937	-.903	.125	-7.222	.418	.249	1.675383
IS2	4.17	.704	-.620	.125	-4.963	.434	.249	1.741301
IS3	4.33	.641	-.731	.125	-5.845	.882	.249	3.537138
IS4	4.17	.708	-.829	.125	-6.630	1.728	.249	6.928017
IS5	4.19	.760	-1.012	.125	-8.100	1.486	.249	5.959172
IS6	3.84	.821	-.466	.125	-3.731	-.161	.249	-0.64573
IS7	4.11	.802	-.781	.125	-6.247	.368	.249	1.474759
IS8	3.56	.830	-.411	.125	-3.286	-.034	.249	-0.13617
IS9	4.39	.723	-1.203	.125	-9.622	1.780	.249	7.137673
ID11	4.14	.757	-.420	.125	-3.362	-.596	.249	-2.3887
ID12	4.03	.891	-.567	.125	-4.539	-.307	.249	-1.23203
ID13	4.13	.790	-.848	.125	-6.785	.937	.249	3.758862
ID14	4.01	.946	-.948	.125	-7.586	.537	.249	2.154942
ID15	4.15	.799	-1.116	.125	-8.931	2.170	.249	8.701703
ID16	4.19	.741	-.591	.125	-4.727	-.095	.249	-0.38245

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error	Z-values	Kurtosis	Std. Error	Z-values
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic			Statistic		
IDI7	4.17	.730	-.552	.125	-4.416	-.040	.249	-0.16058
IDI8	4.17	.744	-.623	.125	-4.986	.097	.249	0.387613
IM1	4.19	.737	-.870	.125	-6.957	1.206	.249	4.836859
IM2	3.86	.844	-.554	.125	-4.434	.126	.249	0.50432
IM3	4.12	.809	-.783	.125	-6.260	.306	.249	1.227684
IM4	4.17	.751	-.656	.125	-5.245	.154	.249	0.618865
INTST1	4.13	.785	-.765	.125	-6.123	.374	.249	1.499379
INTST2	4.04	.846	-.687	.125	-5.496	.090	.249	0.361825
INTST3	3.92	.786	-.576	.125	-4.609	.187	.249	0.750957
INTST4	3.97	.834	-.919	.125	-7.356	1.453	.249	5.825798
IC1	3.67	.929	-.609	.125	-4.875	-.073	.249	-0.29194
IC2	3.59	.965	-.628	.125	-5.023	-.004	.249	-0.0171
IC3	4.02	.774	-.652	.125	-5.213	.345	.249	1.384544
IC4	4.19	.731	-.802	.125	-6.415	.784	.249	3.142848
CR1	4.09	.793	-.733	.125	-5.867	.329	.249	1.318024
CR2	4.04	.823	-.694	.125	-5.555	.129	.249	0.516695
CR3	3.75	.896	-.436	.125	-3.488	-.194	.249	-0.77896
CR4	4.17	.819	-.893	.125	-7.140	.748	.249	3.001572
AME1	3.83	.871	-.712	.125	-5.694	.557	.249	2.23251
AME2	3.95	.895	-1.055	.125	-8.441	1.601	.249	6.420376
AME3	4.02	.804	-1.014	.125	-8.114	2.023	.249	8.114159
AME4	4.04	.797	-.671	.125	-5.371	.218	.249	0.873061
PME1	2.93	.999	.037	.125	.292	-.666	.249	-2.67254
PME2	2.83	1.068	.183	.125	1.463	-.714	.249	-2.86508
PME3	3.20	.921	-.356	.125	-2.850	-.275	.249	-1.10349
PME4	3.18	1.124	-.194	.125	-1.553	-.888	.249	-3.55959
AC1	3.72	.953	-.532	.125	-4.256	.097	.249	0.38996
AC2	4.17	.830	-1.077	.125	-8.615	1.377	.249	5.520157
AC3	4.21	.829	-1.300	.125	-10.401	2.201	.249	8.826549
AC4	3.21	1.083	-.081	.125	-.649	-.478	.249	-1.91689
AC5	4.29	.784	-1.176	.125	-9.410	1.702	.249	6.824178
AC6	4.04	.840	-1.048	.125	-8.384	1.718	.249	6.887911
AC7	4.32	.717	-1.041	.125	-8.327	1.794	.249	7.192985
AC8	4.37	.709	-1.212	.125	-9.697	2.400	.249	9.624466
LWO1	4.40	.742	-1.408	.125	-11.267	2.687	.249	10.77527
LWO2	4.26	.850	-1.370	.125	-10.962	2.135	.249	8.559977
LWO3	4.33	.688	-.873	.125	-6.986	1.142	.249	4.578565
LWO4	4.43	.695	-1.666	.125	-13.332	5.156	.249	20.67546
SE1	4.24	.708	-.909	.125	-7.272	1.543	.249	6.188897

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness			Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Z-values	Statistic	Std. Error	Z-values
SE2	3.78	.942	-.617	.125	-4.940	.134	.249	0.535512
SE3	4.08	.724	-.630	.125	-5.039	.785	.249	3.147732
SE4	4.04	.758	-1.169	.125	-9.348	2.899	.249	11.62456
EXTS1	3.95	.896	-.701	.125	-5.609	.168	.249	0.673544
EXTS2	3.46	.969	-.397	.125	-3.174	-.231	.249	-0.92702
EXTS3	3.88	.789	-.688	.125	-5.506	.895	.249	3.59071
EXTS4	4.20	.889	-1.120	.125	-8.956	.979	.249	3.925877

In the study, researcher also adapted the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Statistics to check data normality. As per the method, the data suffers from normality if the item(s) is/are significant at < 0.001 . SPSS version 22 was used to calculate the statistical values for Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks statistics which shown in Table 4.5. The results of (see table 4.5) discloses that all the variables are significant at < 0.001 which is an indication of violation of normality assumption. Therefore, based on the investigation of the data distribution through two important statistical techniques, it is to sum up that the data for this study is not normally distributed.

The study considered the PLS-SEM method for analyzing the data. One of the great advantages of this method is its underlying assumption concerning the normality of data. PLS-SEM is considered as a soft modeling approach for its more flexible assumptions which are necessary to accomplish the CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2011). According to Urbach and Ahlemann (2010), as a statistical means there are some favorable arguments towards PLS. The advantages are to examine the PLS-SEM models like require less demands regarding the sample size, normal distribution of data does not require, can be used in a complicated structural model with a greater number of constructs and so on. Therefore,

applying the PLS-SEM overcomes the difficulties of normality and the outcomes of the analysis were not disrupted with such a problem.

Table 4.5
Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Statistics

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
SH1	.311	381	.000	.699	381	.000
SH2	.250	381	.000	.866	381	.000
SH3	.261	381	.000	.763	381	.000
SH4	.270	381	.000	.769	381	.000
SH5	.271	381	.000	.805	381	.000
ET1	.258	381	.000	.859	381	.000
ET2	.301	381	.000	.809	381	.000
ET3	.308	381	.000	.740	381	.000
ET4	.258	381	.000	.757	381	.000
ET5	.283	381	.000	.811	381	.000
PA1	.255	381	.000	.794	381	.000
PA2	.296	381	.000	.812	381	.000
PA3	.274	381	.000	.805	381	.000
PA4	.252	381	.000	.778	381	.000
PA5	.281	381	.000	.742	381	.000
PA6	.294	381	.000	.789	381	.000
CP1	.319	381	.000	.839	381	.000
CP2	.279	381	.000	.860	381	.000
CP3	.249	381	.000	.877	381	.000
CP4	.256	381	.000	.881	381	.000
CP5	.283	381	.000	.854	381	.000
CP6	.331	381	.000	.824	381	.000
ES1	.247	381	.000	.878	381	.000
ES2	.274	381	.000	.866	381	.000
ES3	.257	381	.000	.824	381	.000
ES4	.337	381	.000	.810	381	.000
ES5	.283	381	.000	.862	381	.000
PO1	.315	381	.000	.798	381	.000
PO2	.332	381	.000	.799	381	.000
PO3	.302	381	.000	.823	381	.000
PO4	.282	381	.000	.846	381	.000
EP1	.280	381	.000	.816	381	.000

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
EP2	.373	381	.000	.670	381	.000
EP3	.283	381	.000	.766	381	.000
EP4	.309	381	.000	.832	381	.000
EP5	.295	381	.000	.812	381	.000
IS1	.286	381	.000	.826	381	.000
IS2	.269	381	.000	.796	381	.000
IS3	.285	381	.000	.750	381	.000
IS4	.279	381	.000	.785	381	.000
IS5	.282	381	.000	.778	381	.000
IS6	.290	381	.000	.847	381	.000
IS7	.273	381	.000	.811	381	.000
IS8	.280	381	.000	.862	381	.000
IS9	.305	381	.000	.744	381	.000
IDI1	.228	381	.000	.820	381	.000
IDI2	.217	381	.000	.843	381	.000
IDI3	.263	381	.000	.812	381	.000
IDI4	.277	381	.000	.824	381	.000
IDI5	.273	381	.000	.790	381	.000
IDI6	.239	381	.000	.809	381	.000
IDI7	.250	381	.000	.810	381	.000
IDI8	.252	381	.000	.810	381	.000
IM1	.270	381	.000	.790	381	.000
IM2	.278	381	.000	.855	381	.000
IM3	.267	381	.000	.812	381	.000
IM4	.253	381	.000	.810	381	.000
INTST1	.267	381	.000	.809	381	.000
INTST2	.256	381	.000	.836	381	.000
INTST3	.305	381	.000	.828	381	.000
INTST4	.293	381	.000	.822	381	.000
IC1	.297	381	.000	.859	381	.000
IC2	.285	381	.000	.868	381	.000
IC3	.295	381	.000	.818	381	.000
IC4	.271	381	.000	.788	381	.000
CR1	.277	381	.000	.814	381	.000
CR2	.277	381	.000	.825	381	.000
CR3	.255	381	.000	.874	381	.000
CR4	.244	381	.000	.811	381	.000
AME1	.290	381	.000	.850	381	.000
AME2	.291	381	.000	.819	381	.000

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AME3	.298	381	.000	.804	381	.000
AME4	.282	381	.000	.822	381	.000
PME1	.185	381	.000	.904	381	.000
PME2	.205	381	.000	.908	381	.000
PME3	.218	381	.000	.885	381	.000
PME4	.221	381	.000	.902	381	.000
AC1	.233	381	.000	.877	381	.000
AC2	.264	381	.000	.795	381	.000
AC3	.277	381	.000	.765	381	.000
AC4	.208	381	.000	.909	381	.000
AC5	.265	381	.000	.769	381	.000
AC6	.290	381	.000	.808	381	.000
AC7	.274	381	.000	.765	381	.000
AC8	.292	381	.000	.745	381	.000
LWO1	.307	381	.000	.729	381	.000
LWO2	.258	381	.000	.756	381	.000
LWO3	.274	381	.000	.767	381	.000
LWO4	.306	381	.000	.693	381	.000
SE1	.264	381	.000	.774	381	.000
SE2	.256	381	.000	.870	381	.000
SE3	.286	381	.000	.809	381	.000
SE4	.330	381	.000	.766	381	.000
EXTS1	.261	381	.000	.849	381	.000
EXTS2	.237	381	.000	.892	381	.000
EXTS3	.306	381	.000	.831	381	.000
EXTS4	.253	381	.000	.789	381	.000

4.3.5 Test of Multicollinearity

The term multicollinearity indicates the relationship between multiple independent variable (Hair et al., 2010). In statistics, it refers to the phenomenon in multiple regression model where two or more predictor variables are highly correlated. In case of multiple regression analyses, like SEM, the independent variables are presumed not to be

linearly correlated because the greater linear multicollinearity emerges the complexities in explaining the relationships. Hence, identifying the impact of every predictor variable on the outcome variable is ambiguous because of complex inter-predictor relationships (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, Field (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) provided the argument that the existence of such multicollinearity lessens the size of path coefficients (beta) and raises the standard error and thus decreases the statistical significance (t-value).

To check the multicollinearity problem that may presence in the data, the study first investigate the inter construct correlation matrix to determine if there are any two predictor variables that are greatly correlated as recommended by Hair et al. (2010) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). They suggested a standard of >0.9 as a benchmark that recommends there is multicollinearity. The current study created a correlation matrix that is depicted in Appendix C and determined no inter-predictor correlation among the variables. Indeed, the greatest correlation is 0.677; between idealized influence and inspirational motivation.

As per the recommendation of Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2017), the study also tests the tolerance values and variance inflated factor (VIF). The threshold values that recommended a severe multicollinearity are <0.20 and >5 for tolerance values and VIF accordingly (Hair Jr et al., 2017). The collinearity diagnostic was run by using SPSS version 22. Therefore, the study ascertained the absence of multicollinearity among the

constructs as the smallest tolerance value is 0.399, while the largest VIF is 2.507 as showed in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6
Collinearity Statistics

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.006	.331		3.041	.003		
SH	.256	.046	.266	5.541	.000	.683	1.463
ET	.034	.050	.036	.678	.498	.569	1.756
PA	.119	.044	.112	2.707	.007	.909	1.100
CP	.030	.040	.038	.742	.458	.592	1.688
ES	-.006	.036	-.006	-.156	.876	.940	1.064
PO	-.039	.057	-.032	-.685	.494	.700	1.428
EP	.200	.053	.204	3.765	.000	.534	1.873
IS	.181	.056	.175	3.232	.001	.533	1.877
IDI	.085	.056	.095	1.516	.130	.400	2.502
IM	.060	.057	.066	1.058	.291	.399	2.507
INTST	.025	.047	.030	.537	.591	.506	1.974
IC	-.049	.048	-.057	-1.016	.310	.498	2.007
CR	-.090	.049	-.113	-1.845	.066	.416	2.404
AME	.059	.043	.076	1.368	.172	.513	1.951
PME	-.062	.027	-.096	-2.288	.023	.897	1.115
AC	-.016	.049	-.017	-.330	.742	.586	1.706

a. Dependent Variable: LWO

Note: SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO =Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, IDI = Idealized influence, IM = Inspirational motivation, INTST = Intellectual stimulation, IC= individualized consideration, CR= Contingent reward, AME=Active management-by-exception, PME= Passive management-by-exception, AC= Affective commitment, LWO=Learning with others.

4.3.6 Common Method Bias

CMV is a “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

CMV may cause when the interview or survey of any research or study includes a single source for collecting responses (Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009). CMV generates a false internal consistency which indicates that there is a possible correlation between the variables created by their common source. Consequently it is a warning for the validity of the association between variables. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003) there are many reasons for such biasness followed as common rater effect, social desirability, consistency motif, common scale format, acquiescence biases, scale length and item social desirability. However, a very common difficulty emerges when same respondents are requested to complete the questionnaire for both the cause and effect, for instance, organizational supports and employees' outcome. Systematic measurement errors can be created by common methods by which the observed relationships between constructs may be inflated or deflated and can create both Type I and Type II errors (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010).

As researchers have argued regarding the possibility of common method bias causing from using a single-source survey (Gerhart, Wright, MAHAN, & Snell, 2000; Han, Chou, Chao, & Wright, 2006; Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008), the current study takes a great care to handle this problem. Researcher of the study used a cross sectional survey method that specifies all types of data was collected from a single respondent within branches of private commercial bank which may generate the problem of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In order to determine the existence of common method bias, the current study conducted Harman's single factor test which is highly accepted to test the CMV.

This method includes loading all the indicators into an exploratory factor analysis and then investigates the un-rotated component matrix with a view to identify the number of influential factors that consider for the variance in that variable. It is claimed that CMV is exist when the total factors load into a single factor or most of the covariance among measures is stated for by a single factor. As per this method, if the percentage of the variance for a single factor exhibits less than 50%, it refers that there is no significant biases presence in the dataset.

In order to do this, an un-rotated factor analysis was carried for all measurement items that extracted 24 factors with eigenvalues equal to one (Appendix B). The entire 24 factors contributed 65.33 percent of the overall variance. The first factor deemed for 20.52 percent of the variance which is less than the cut-off value of 0.5. Therefore, in conclusion it is mentioned that the common method bias is not a major matter for this study.

4.4 Respondents' Profile

The study conducted survey with a structured questionnaire among the employees working as a head of the department of branches of private commercial banks operating in Dhaka division of Bangladesh. The unit of analysis of this study is the individual and respondents are the different head of the department of branches of private commercial banks. Profile of the respondents is shown in Table 4.7.

As per, Table 4.7 the profile of the respondents are reported. Out of over all respondents 81.9% are male, while female constitutes 18.1%. This indicates that the branches of private commercial banks in Bangladesh is male dominated. 31.8 per cent of the respondents aged between 25-35 years, 45.9 per cent are 35-45, and 18.9 per cent are 45-55, while only 3.4 per cent of respondents are above 55 years of age. Regarding educational qualifications 96.6% of them have Master Degree, 2.9% percent have bachelor degree, and 0.3 per cent of respondents have PhD, while rest of 0.3 percent respondents have others degree. In case of experience, 10.5 percent respondents have less than 4 years' experience, 14.7 percent respondents experience in between 4-7 years, 26.5 percent respondents experience in between 7-10 years, while majority of respondents (48.3%) have more than 10 years' experience. It indicates that the majority of the head of the department of different division of branches are experienced. Among the respondents 28.1% working as head of the department of general banking, 17.1% working as head of account, 34.6 % working as head of credit and remaining 20.2 % working as head of foreign exchange.

Table 4.7
Respondents Profile

Demographics		Frequencies(N=381)	Percentage
Gender			
	Male	312	81.9%
	Female	69	18.1
Age			
	25-35	121	31.8
	35-45	175	45.9
	45-55	72	18.9
	55 Above	13	3.4
Education			
	Bachelor	11	2.9

	Masters	368	96.6
	PhD	1	.3
	Others	1	.3
Experience			
	Less than 4	40	10.5
	4--7	56	14.7
	7--10	101	26.5
	More than 10	184	48.3
Work Division			
	General banking	107	28.1
	Account	65	17.1
	Credit	132	34.6
	Foreign Exchange	77	20.2

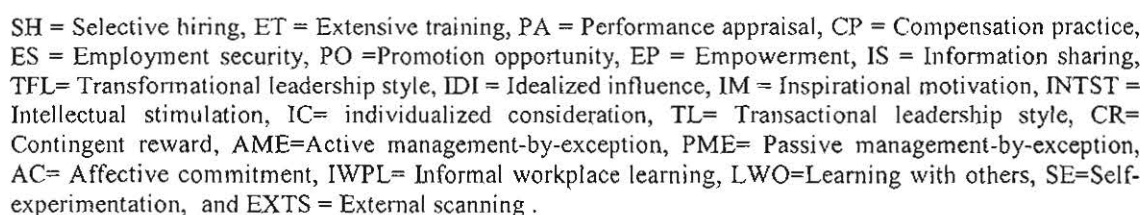
4.5 Assessment of Measurement Model (Outer model)

In PLS-SEM, the assessment of the model is done through two stages namely the measurement model and the structural model (Deal, 2006; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). The measurement model is also known as outer model which explain the structural relationship between latent constructs and their indicators (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The measurement model commenced with the assessment of goodness of the measurement and the constituent of the model. Generally, the quality of the measurement model relies on the validity and reliability of the measurement items that indicate its constructs. In the current study, all the items related to the measurement of each variable are reflective in both statistically and theoretically. Coltman et al. (2008) and Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2006) suggested that all the reflective measurement items should demonstrate a high positive inter-correlation and should be theoretically manifested by the construct. According to their suggestions, this study tested the item correlations and identified that

all the measurement items are extremely correlated within the variable. All the items correlations with each other within the same variable are furnished and shown in Appendix D.

All the variables included in the study as well as the higher order constructs related to assess the measurement model are shown in Figure 4.1. In addition, the mean and standard deviation of all the 97 items are measured and shown in Appendix E. According to Hair et al. (2011), reflective measurement model should be assessed based on interpreting their reliability and validity. Therefore, it can be concluded that the goodness of measurement model can be measured through indicators reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Chin, 2010).





4.5.1 Indicator Reliability

The first and foremost criterion for convergent validity is to confirm the indicators reliability. Hair et al. (2011) suggested that indicators reliability should be measured to investigate factor loadings where each of the indicators perfect standardized loading should be higher than or equal to 0.7. Some other researchers also recommended the standardized loading as 0.6 (Chin, 1998) and even there are confirmations for 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010; Igbaria, Iivari, & Maragahh, 1995). Therefore, the current study considered 0.6 as the cut-off value for standardized loadings which is also treated as significant for a numerous previous studies (for example Gholami, Sulaiman, Ramayah, & Molla, 2013; Surienty, Ramayah, Lo, & Tarmizi, 2014).

The PLS algorithm was used to measure item loadings. Based on this cut-off value, a total of fourteen items, one item from selective hiring (SH1), one item from performance appraisal (PA2), three items from employment security (ES1, ES2, ES5), one item from promotion opportunity (PO4), two items from information sharing (IS6, IS8), one item from inspirational motivation (IM2), one item from individualized consideration (IC3), one item from affective commitment (AC4), one item from self experimentation (SE4), and one item from external scanning (EXTS1) were deleted. Thirteen items were deleted for poor loadings such as SH1 (0.391), PA2 (0.517), ES1 (0.247), ES2 (0.177), ES5 (0.568), PO4 (0.430), IS6 (0.521), IS8 (0.469), IM2 (0.544), IC3 (0.526), AC4 (0.351), SE4 (0.463), EXTS1 (0.531) based on the criteria mentioned above. However, one item from extensive training ET2 was deleted although the loading value (0.603) is higher than

the criteria. This is because deletion of ET2 led to an increase in the composite reliability and average variance extracted of extensive training construct to the minimum acceptable value. In PLS- SEM, researcher can delete as many as indicators from the constructs to improve construct reliability (Hair et al, 2014). It doesn't require any minimum number of items, as it converges with any number of items per construct. However, the researcher should not delete more than 20% of the indicators in the model (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, the total of fourteen items was deleted from the 97 items and finally 83 items were retained for the analysis. Table 4.8 depicts the entire retained items and their respective loadings. According to Table 4.8, the minimum value of factor loading was 0.605 for item PO3, IDI7, AC1 and maximum value was 0.964 for ES4.

4.5.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

Generally, the internal consistency reliability is measured based on Cronbach Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) where the assessment is based on indicators manifest variables inter correlations and whereby all the indicators are presumed to have same outer loadings (Hair et al., 2014). But the main issue in PLS-SEM is indicator's individual reliability. In order to remove the drawbacks of Cronbach Alpha, a more robust measure are used for assessing internal consistency reliability, which is known as composite reliability and it is proposed and discussed by Starkweather (2012). One of the important criteria is to assess the Composite Reliability (CR) to measure the internal consistency reliability of the measurement items. According to Henseler et al. (2009) composite reliability refers to the degree by which the latent variable can be explained by the observed variables and

can be stated as Cronbach's alpha. Nevertheless, composite reliability is well suited as compared to alpha value from the time of model assessment it prioritizes the indicators as per their reliability (Hair et al., 2011).

In addition, Barroso et al. (2010), the existing item number in each scale and it uses the loadings of items extracted from the causal model cannot affect the composite reliability, thus more acceptable compared to the Cronbach's alpha. The composite reliability reference values lies between 0.6 to 0.7 for exploratory studies and from 0.7 to 0.9 in more advanced studies are considered satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). When the value of composite reliability is less than 0.60 is considered deficient. On the other hand, values above 0.90 might recommend an invalid measure, as this specifies the indicators are assessing the same concept (Hair et al., 2014).

The composite reliability for all the latent constructs was calculated by using Standard algorithm technique in Smart PLS. Table 4.8 depicts the values of composite reliability for all the constructs. As per Table 4.8, all the latent constructs have met and surpass the minimum criterion value of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). As discussed above, Bagozzi and Yi (1988) recommended the cut-off value for CR as 0.6 whereas other researchers (such as, Hair et al., 2014; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) suggested the same at 0.7. Therefore, the current study considered the cut-off value of CR is 0.70. Self experimentation shows the minimum CR of 0.758 and idealized influence has the highest CR of 0.906. It is important to note that this latent constructs have exceeded the 0.90 benchmark for desirable value, but is not a 'definite' undesirable value, as it did not

exceed 0.95 as suggested by Hair et al. (2014). Finally, it can be said that the measurement model satisfied all the requirements of composite reliability.

4.5.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which multiple items assessing the same construct and should allocate or converge a higher portion of variance in common (Hair et al., 2014). More specifically, it is the degree of agreement among several items used in the research to measure a particular concept (Hair et al., 2014; Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011). AVE is the outstanding average value of the squared loadings of the indicators related with the construct. At least 0.5 is the cut-off value of AVE and higher than that signify a satisfactory convergent validity. A latent variable is able to describe half or above than half of the variance when the AVE value is 0.5 or higher and hence this value is considered adequate (Hair et al., 2013; Henseler et al., 2009). Therefore, Hair et al. (2010) recommended that factor loading should be greater than 0.708, because its square root is equal to 0.5.

Table 4 8
Internal Consistency Reliability and Convergent Validity

First order constructs	Higher Order Constructs	Item Type	Items	Loadings	AVE ^a	CR ^b
Selective Hiring		Reflective	SH2	0.780	0.546	0.827
			SH3	0.649		
			SH4	0.764		
			SH5	0.754		
Extensive Training		Reflective	ET1	0.646	0.533	0.819
			ET3	0.807		
			ET4	0.762		
			ET5	0.695		

First order constructs	Higher Order Constructs	Item Type	Items	Loadings	AVE ^a	CR ^b
Performance Appraisal		Reflective	PA1	0.699	0.514	0.840
			PA3	0.695		
			PA4	0.821		
			PA5	0.719		
			PA6	0.639		
Compensation Practices		Reflective	CP1	0.751	0.577	0.891
			CP2	0.675		
			CP3	0.741		
			CP4	0.818		
			CP5	0.846		
			CP6	0.714		
Employment Security		Reflective	ES3	0.630	0.663	0.790
			ES4	0.964		
Promotion Opportunity		Reflective	PO1	0.760	0.527	0.768
			PO2	0.799		
			PO3	0.605		
Empowerment		Reflective	EP1	0.738	0.502	0.834
			EP2	0.646		
			EP3	0.728		
			EP4	0.721		
			EP5	0.707		
Information Sharing		Reflective	IS1	0.710	0.537	0.890
			IS2	0.787		
			IS3	0.747		
			IS4	0.788		
			IS5	0.702		
			IS7	0.685		
			IS9	0.705		
Idealized Influence	Transformational Leadership				0.686	0.897
	Reflective		IDI1	0.718	0.547	0.906
			IDI2	0.726		
			IDI3	0.779		
			IDI4	0.769		
			IDI5	0.801		
			IDI6	0.770		
			IDI7	0.605		
			IDI8	0.732		
Inspirational Motivation		Reflective	IM1	0.788	0.664	0.856
			IM3	0.839		
			IM4	0.817		
Intellectual stimulation		Reflective	INTST1	0.785	0.609	0.862

First order constructs	Higher Order Constructs	Item Type	Items	Loadings	AVE ^a	CR ^b
			INTST2	0.810		
			INTST3	0.742		
			INTST4	0.782		
Individualized consideration		Reflective	IC1	0.794	0.569	0.797
			IC2	0.642		
			IC4	0.816		
	Transactional Leadership				0.569	0.779
Contingent Reward		Reflective	CR1	0.817	0.637	0.875
			CR2	0.818		
			CR3	0.807		
			CR4	0.750		
Active Management-by-Exception		Reflective	AME1	0.758	0.647	0.880
			AME2	0.820		
			AME3	0.833		
			AME4	0.803		
Passive Management-by-Exception		Reflective	PME1	0.768	0.626	0.869
			PME2	0.847		
			PME3	0.674		
			PME4	0.861		
Affective Commitment		Reflective	AC1	0.605	0.500	0.875
			AC2	0.690		
			AC3	0.710		
			AC5	0.711		
			AC6	0.675		
			AC7	0.771		
			AC8	0.775		
	Informal Workplace Learning				0.586	0.808
Learning with Others		Reflective	LWO1	0.778	0.510	0.805
			LWO2	0.681		
			LWO3	0.640		
			LWO4	0.748		
Self Experimentation		Reflective	SE1	0.788	0.512	0.758
			SE2	0.688		
			SE3	0.665		
External Scanning		Reflective	EXTS2	0.712	0.518	0.763
			EXTS3	0.671		
			EXTS4	0.773		

Note: SH1, ET2, PA2, ES1, ES2, ES5, PO4, IS6, IS8, IM2, IC3, AC4, SE4, EXTS1 were deleted as loading <0.6.

The current study used Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to estimate the convergent validity based on Hair et al. (2010) and Fornell and Larcker (1981) criteria. Result of the PLS algorithm discloses that AVE values for all the constructs have fulfilled and surpassed the minimum criteria value explained above (see Table 4.8). The convergent validity regarding AVE exhibited a satisfactory outcome as all the constructs had equal to or greater than 0.5 of minimum threshold. The values of AVE ranged between 0.500 to 0.686.

4.5.4 Discriminant Validity

In PLS, the second vital criterion is the discriminant validity for measuring the validity of the measurement model. Discriminant validity refers to the extent how indicators really represent a construct and how they are unlike from other construct (Hair et al., 2014). As stated by Sekaran and Bougie (2010), it indicates a situation when two or more dissimilar concepts are not correlated to each other. This validity is measured to test the differences between two conceptually dissimilar concepts (Henseler et al., 2009). Two important measures namely Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings, have been suggested to assess discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). Regarding variance-based SEM, the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the estimation of cross-loadings are the principal method for investigating discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). Therefore, the current study used both the criteria to measure discriminant validity. As per Fornell-Larcker criterion, the correlations between constructs must be compared with the square root of the AVE for that constructs as well as all the diagonal

value of the constructs should be greater than the corresponding off-diagonal constructs (Chin, 2010). The another criteria for measuring discriminant validity is the cross loading that recommends that the loading of each indicator must be greater compared to others cross loading to ensure the discriminant validity (Götz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014). Table 4.9 shows the results of the discriminant validity which discloses that all the diagonal values of the constructs are higher than the corresponding off-diagonal constructs. Hence, the results demonstrate sufficient discriminant validity of the measurement model.



Table 4.9

Discriminant Validity

	AC	AME	CP	CR	EP	ES	ET	EXTS	IC	IDI	IM	INTS	IS	LWO	PA	PME	PO	SE	SH
AC	0.707																		
AME	0.435	0.804																	
CP	0.490	0.380	0.760																
CR	0.487	0.644	0.401	0.798															
EP	0.515	0.342	0.443	0.419	0.709														
ES	0.169	0.081	0.099	0.111	0.211	0.814													
ET	0.514	0.364	0.469	0.338	0.474	0.206	0.730												
EXTS	0.249	0.262	0.351	0.268	0.395	0.068	0.318	0.720											
IC	0.396	0.449	0.356	0.556	0.370	0.182	0.354	0.301	0.755										
IDI	0.411	0.432	0.434	0.561	0.433	0.170	0.383	0.351	0.590	0.740									
IM	0.517	0.472	0.423	0.623	0.421	0.182	0.398	0.248	0.559	0.712	0.815								
INTS	0.371	0.517	0.337	0.555	0.329	0.226	0.343	0.318	0.562	0.605	0.550	0.780							
IS	0.480	0.432	0.409	0.455	0.566	0.089	0.406	0.354	0.333	0.477	0.463	0.390	0.733						
LWO	0.418	0.325	0.371	0.321	0.485	0.186	0.412	0.445	0.283	0.425	0.385	0.343	0.492	0.714					
PA	0.186	0.110	0.181	0.127	0.133	0.139	0.196	0.111	0.151	0.163	0.202	0.158	0.076	0.246	0.717				
PME	-0.206	-0.164	-0.178	-0.129	-0.155	-0.195	-0.195	-0.114	-0.144	-0.247	-0.188	-0.233	-0.182	-0.249	-0.064	0.791			
PO	0.410	0.252	0.418	0.334	0.425	0.242	0.348	0.214	0.278	0.333	0.366	0.240	0.298	0.258	0.087	-0.089	0.726		
SE	0.255	0.198	0.301	0.170	0.220	0.114	0.304	0.324	0.234	0.224	0.236	0.266	0.239	0.382	0.194	-0.035	0.221	0.715	
SH	0.446	0.314	0.410	0.425	0.423	0.201	0.465	0.309	0.341	0.401	0.447	0.344	0.391	0.478	0.201	-0.176	0.316	0.304	0.739

Note: Diagonals (bolded) indicates the squared root of average variance extracted (AVE) while the other entries represent the correlations among constructs. SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO = Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, Idealized influence, IM= Inspirational motivation, INTS= Intellectual stimulation, IC= Individualized consideration, CP= contingent reward, AME= Active management-by-exception, PME= Passive management-by-exception, AC= Affective commitment, LWO= Learning with others, SE= Self experimentation, EXTS= External Scanning.

Besides, the current study also applied another criterion, cross loading, for estimating discriminant validity which recommends that the loading of each indicator must be greater compared to other cross loading to determine discriminant validity (Götz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2013). Through running PLS-algorithm analysis, the loadings and cross loadings are calculated. The result of the cross loadings is depicted in Appendix F. The study identified no item of its construct column that greatly correlated with any other construct item. The results demonstrated the acceptable outcome and no items required to be deleted for cross loadings. As per Chin (1998) and Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommendations, the items are highly loyal to their mother construct than in any other constructs. Table 4.10 also depicted that all the items loadings are significant ($p < 0.001$).

Table 4.10
Significance of the Loadings

Construct	Items	Path Coefficient	SE	T value	P Value
Selective Hiring	SH2	0.780	0.033	23.955	0.000
	SH3	0.649	0.051	12.660	0.000
	SH4	0.764	0.032	24.020	0.000
	SH5	0.754	0.031	24.455	0.000
Extensive Training	ET1	0.646	0.046	14.164	0.000
	ET3	0.807	0.022	36.975	0.000
	ET4	0.762	0.029	26.073	0.000
	ET5	0.695	0.033	21.114	0.000
Performance Appraisal	PA1	0.699	0.075	9.315	0.000
	PA3	0.695	0.072	9.594	0.000
	PA4	0.821	0.052	15.864	0.000
	PA5	0.719	0.079	9.096	0.000
	PA6	0.639	0.093	6.887	0.000
Compensation Practices	CP1	0.751	0.034	22.427	0.000
	CP2	0.675	0.037	18.339	0.000
	CP3	0.741	0.026	28.456	0.000
	CP4	0.818	0.017	48.462	0.000
	CP5	0.846	0.017	48.968	0.000
	CP6	0.714	0.033	21.542	0.000

Construct	Items	Path Coefficient	SE	T value	P Value
Employment Security	ES3	0.630	0.199	4.157	0.000
	ES4	0.964	0.082	11.782	0.000
Promotion Opportunity	PO1	0.760	0.04	19.124	0.000
	PO2	0.799	0.037	21.821	0.000
	PO3	0.605	0.078	7.739	0.000
Empowerment	EP1	0.738	0.031	24.041	0.000
	EP2	0.646	0.042	15.436	0.000
	EP3	0.728	0.027	27.059	0.000
	EP4	0.721	0.033	22.048	0.000
	EP5	0.707	0.032	22.224	0.000
Information Sharing	IS1	0.710	0.028	25.697	0.000
	IS2	0.787	0.026	30.334	0.000
	IS3	0.747	0.028	26.475	0.000
	IS4	0.788	0.023	34.756	0.000
	IS5	0.702	0.035	20.342	0.000
	IS7	0.685	0.04	17.290	0.000
	IS9	0.705	0.029	24.474	0.000
Idealized Influence	IDI1	0.718	0.027	26.268	0.000
	IDI2	0.726	0.03	24.144	0.000
	IDI3	0.779	0.019	41.684	0.000
	IDI4	0.769	0.023	34.090	0.000
	IDI5	0.801	0.02	39.548	0.000
	IDI6	0.770	0.024	31.906	0.000
	IDI7	0.605	0.045	13.543	0.000
	IDI8	0.732	0.024	30.322	0.000
Inspirational Motivation	IM1	0.788	0.026	30.465	0.000
	IM3	0.839	0.017	49.798	0.000
	IM4	0.817	0.021	38.738	0.000
Intellectual stimulation	INTST1	0.785	0.023	34.054	0.000
	INTST2	0.810	0.021	39.460	0.000
	INTST3	0.742	0.032	22.898	0.000
	INTST4	0.782	0.026	29.677	0.000
Individualized consideration	IC1	0.794	0.024	33.152	0.000
	IC2	0.642	0.039	16.621	0.000
	IC4	0.816	0.023	35.361	0.000
Contingent Reward	CR1	0.817	0.021	39.800	0.000
	CR2	0.818	0.022	37.690	0.000
	CR3	0.807	0.02	40.742	0.000
	CR4	0.750	0.032	23.343	0.000
Active Management-by-Exception	AME1	0.758	0.023	32.425	0.000
	AME2	0.820	0.022	36.601	0.000

Construct	Items	Path Coefficient	SE	T value	P Value
Passive Management-by-Exception	AME3	0.833	0.02	41.629	0.000
	AME4	0.803	0.021	38.347	0.000
	PME1	0.768	0.089	4.749	0.000
	PME2	0.847	0.079	5.769	0.000
	PME3	0.674	0.068	6.833	0.000
Affective Commitment	PME4	0.861	0.058	8.763	0.000
	AC1	0.605	0.045	13.567	0.000
	AC2	0.690	0.035	19.574	0.000
	AC3	0.710	0.037	19.026	0.000
	AC5	0.711	0.042	16.942	0.000
Learning with Others	AC6	0.675	0.04	16.954	0.000
	AC7	0.771	0.026	29.830	0.000
	AC8	0.775	0.032	23.955	0.000
	LWO1	0.778	0.03	26.334	0.000
	LWO2	0.681	0.043	15.964	0.000
Self Experimentation	LWO3	0.640	0.043	14.935	0.000
	LWO4	0.748	0.036	20.723	0.000
	SE1	0.788	0.033	23.969	0.000
	SE2	0.688	0.048	14.310	0.000
	SE3	0.665	0.064	10.323	0.000
External Scanning	EXTS2	0.712	0.045	15.986	0.000
	EXTS3	0.671	0.069	9.742	0.000
	EXTS4	0.773	0.032	23.823	0.000

Note: SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO = Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, IDI = Idealized influence, IM = Inspirational motivation, INTST = Intellectual stimulation, IC= individualized consideration, CR= Contingent reward, AME=Active management-by-exception, PME= Passive management-by-exception, AC= Affective commitment, LWO=Learning with others, SE=Self-experimentation, and EXTS = External scanning.

4.6 Descriptive Statistics of the Latent Constructs

The study used 5-point Likert scale to capture respondent's responses and the study followed the mean value of the scale. In the current study, mean values of all the variables identified to be above the midpoint 2.50. Table 4.11 lists the result obtained from the descriptive analysis.

Table 4.11

Descriptive Statistics for Measuring Level of Constructs

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SH	381	3.40	1.60	5.00	4.1995	.55050
ET	381	2.80	2.20	5.00	4.1213	.55772
PA	381	3.17	1.83	5.00	4.1815	.50036
CP	381	3.67	1.33	5.00	3.6702	.68291
ES	381	3.40	1.60	5.00	3.7522	.60500
PO	381	2.75	2.25	5.00	3.8609	.43943
EP	381	2.20	2.80	5.00	4.1549	.54101
IS	381	2.56	2.44	5.00	4.0808	.51412
IDI	381	2.75	2.25	5.00	4.1214	.59142
IM	381	3.00	2.00	5.00	4.0833	.58330
INTST	381	3.25	1.75	5.00	4.0157	.63460
IC	381	3.25	1.75	5.00	3.8694	.61546
CR	381	3.00	2.00	5.00	4.0105	.66507
AME	381	3.50	1.50	5.00	3.9600	.67683
PME	381	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0381	.81688
AC	381	3.88	1.13	5.00	4.0423	.56075
LWO	381	3.50	1.50	5.00	4.3530	.53069
SE	381	3.25	1.75	5.00	4.0367	.49897
EXTS	381	3.75	1.25	5.00	3.8734	.60033
Valid N (listwise)	381					

Note: SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO = Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, IDI = Idealized influence, IM = Inspirational motivation, INTST = Intellectual stimulation, IC = individualized consideration, CR = Contingent reward, AME = Active management-by-exception, PME = Passive management-by-exception, AC = Affective commitment, LWO = Learning with others, SE = Self-experimentation, and EXTS = External scanning.

According to Table 4.11 learning with other (LWO) scored the highest with a mean value of 4.353. The dispersion values stated through standard deviation specifies that the dispersion values were less than 1 in all variables. Promotion opportunity (PO) holds the lowest standard deviation with the value of 0.439. However, in case of passive management by exception, it has been found that standard deviation is the highest which specifies the data is widely spread and the respondents have diverse range of responses regarding the passive management by exception. The descriptive statistics displays that

learning with others, self experimentation and external scanning have mean value of 4.353, 4.036 and 3.873 respectively. The values suggest that most of the respondents are agreed to the measurement items of the dependent variables and level of agreement with the measurement items is high.

4.7 Assessment of Structural Model

In structural model, the basic purpose is to characterize the relationship between the latent variables hypothesized in the research model (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). The main evaluation criteria for estimating the structural model are the coefficient of determination (R^2), beta as well as the level of significance (t-values) of path coefficients (Hair et al., 2013; Henseler et al., 2009). In order to assess the structural model, at the very beginning, the coefficient of determination (R^2) is used, based on Chin (1998) and Cohen (1988), to assess the variance explained in the outcome variable by the predictor variables. After that, the significance and relevance of the structural model is assessed based on the value of path coefficient, standard error and statistical t-values. This step is performed through the bootstrapping procedure in Smart PLS 3 for both the main effect model and the mediating effect.

In addition to basic measures, the study also reported the predictive relevance (Q^2) and the effect size (f^2) as recommended by Hair et al. (2014) and Soto-Acosta, Popa, and Palacios-Marqués (2016). The effect sizes (f^2) of each of the exogenous variable are calculated and evaluated based on the criteria provided by Cohen (1988). To identify the

predictive relevance (Q^2) and effect size (q^2), the blindfolding procedure is applied (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009).

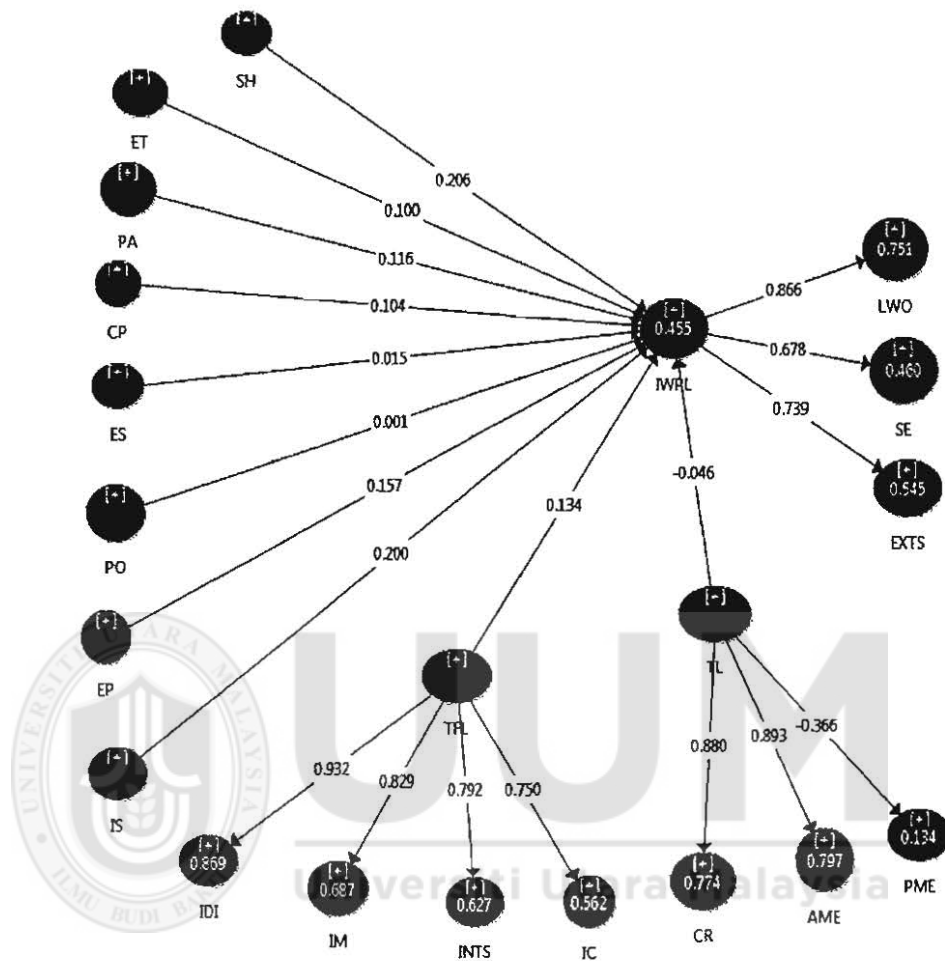
4.7.1 Direct Relationship between the Independent Variables and Dependent Variable

In this study, the path coefficients of the structural model have been tested and bootstrapping analysis is done to measure the statistical significance of the path coefficients. Statistical t-values that are substantially different from 0 is said to be almost always significant, however, it highly depends on the degree of freedom, confidence interval and directionality of hypothesis and hence p. value is used to identify if the paths are significant (Hair et al., 2014). The PLS bootstrapping resampling (Chin, 2010) is run to estimate statistical t-values and the standard error. Bootstrap is the re-sampling technique which includes repeated random sampling with replacement from the original sample with a view to generate a bootstrap sample to attain standard error for hypotheses testing (Cordeiro, Machás, & Neves, 2010). This techniques represents a non-parametric approach for measuring the precision of the PLS estimates (Chin, 2010) .

Through the bootstrapping techniques each path coefficient's significance is derived (Hair et al., 2011). Results of bootstrap also assume the mean value and standard error for each path model coefficient that can be applied to measure the t-test for determining the significance of the path model relationship (Henseler et al., 2009). Chin (1998) suggested 500 re-sampling for bootstrapping to estimate a parameter. On the other hand, Hayes

(2009) recommended at least 1000 re-sampling and researchers can also use 5000 re-sampling for conducting bootstrapping. Therefore, the current study used 1000 re-sampling for bootstrapping to examine the significance of the regression coefficients. In case of p-value, 95 percent confidence interval level is considered as it is acceptable in social science research (for example, Bickel, 2012; Cox & Hinkley, 1979).

The key objective of the research is to explore the impact of human resources management practices (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing) and leadership style (transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style) on informal workplace learning of employees working in private commercial banks. Based on this objective, the study developed ten hypotheses for direct relationships and tested the relationships between independent and dependent variables (see Figure 4.2).



Note: SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO = Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, TFL= Transformational leadership style, IM = Inspirational motivation, INTST = Intellectual stimulation, IC= individualized consideration, TL= Transactional leadership style, CR= Contingent reward, AME=Active management-by-exception, PME= Passive management-by-exception, IWPL= Informal workplace learning, LWO=Learning with others, SE=Self-experimentation, and EXTS = External scanning.

Figure 4 2
Direct Path Relationships

The study found that selective hiring ($\beta = 0.206$, $t = 3.761$, $p < 0.01$), extensive training ($\beta = 0.100$, $t = 1.669$, $p < 0.05$) performance appraisal ($\beta = 0.116$, $t = 2.686$, $p < 0.01$), compensation practices ($\beta = 0.104$, $t = 1.948$, $p < 0.05$), empowerment ($\beta = 0.157$, $t =$

2.661, $p < 0.01$), Information sharing ($\beta = 0.200$, $t = 3.487$, $p < 0.01$), transformational leadership style ($\beta = 0.134$, $t = 1.815$, $p < 0.05$), had significant positive relationships with informal workplace learning. Besides, the others independent variables followed as employment security ($\beta = 0.015$, $t = 0.362$), and promotion opportunity ($\beta = 0.001$, $t = 0.012$), although showed positive relation but was not statistically significant with informal workplace learning. However, regarding the transactional leadership style to informal workplace learning, the statistical analysis indicates that the path coefficient value of the relationship is statistically in significant ($\beta = -0.046$, $t = 0.879$), with negative beta value. Therefore, hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H1g, H1h and H2a are supported and H1e, H1f, H2b are not supported. Table 4.12 summarizes the results of the direct effect between the ten independent variables and informal workplace learning.

Table 4.12

Results of the Structural Model Direct Relationship (Hypothesis testing)

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std. Bta	Std. Err.	t-value	P. Value	Decision
H1a	SH -> IWPL	0.206	0.055	3.761	0.000**	Supported
H1b	ET -> IWPL	0.100	0.060	1.669	0.048*	Supported
H1c	PA -> IWPL	0.116	0.043	2.686	0.004**	Supported
H1d	CP -> IWPL	0.104	0.053	1.948	0.026*	Supported
H1e	ES -> IWPL	0.015	0.041	0.362	0.359	Not supported
H1f	PO -> IWPL	0.001	0.053	0.012	0.495	Not supported
H1g	EP -> IWPL	0.157	0.059	2.661	0.004**	Supported
H1h	IS -> IWPL	0.200	0.057	3.487	0.000**	Supported
H2a	TFL -> IWPL	0.134	0.074	1.815	0.035*	Supported
H2b	TL -> IWPL	-0.046	0.053	0.879	0.190	Not supported

Notes: SH=Selective hiring, ET=Extensive training, PA=Performance appraisal, CP=Compensation practices, ES=Employment security, PO=Promotion opportunity, EP=Empowerment, IS=information sharing, TFL= Transformational leadership style, TL= Transactional leadership style, IWPL= informal workplace learning. ** $p < 0.01$ and * $p < 0.05$

4.7.2 Hypothesis Testing with Mediating Variable

Testing the mediating effect of affective commitment is one of the vital objectives of the study. To test the necessity of mediation effect and examining the mediation effect, t-test through non-parametric procedure bootstrapping has been conducted. With the non-parametric PLS path modeling technique, a non-parametric bootstrapping procedure was carried out to test the significance of the mediating effect as suggested by Hair et al. (2013) on hypothesis H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e, H3f, H3g, H3h, H4a and H4b. The results of the mediation effects are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13
Results of the Mediation Effect

Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	Std. Beta	SE	T value	P Value	Decision
H3a	SH -> AC -> IWPL	0.033	0.022	1.471	0.071	Not supported
H3b	ET -> AC -> IWPL	0.073	0.025	2.943	0.002**	Supported
H3c	PA -> AC -> IWPL	0.020	0.016	1.225	0.110	Not supported
H3d	CP -> AC -> IWPL	0.050	0.022	2.314	0.010*	Supported
H3e	ES -> AC -> IWPL	0.000	0.017	0.019	0.493	Not supported
H3f	PO -> AC -> IWPL	0.045	0.022	2.051	0.020*	Supported
H3g	EP -> AC -> IWPL	0.058	0.023	2.543	0.006**	Supported
H3h	IS -> AC -> IWPL	0.043	0.025	1.695	0.045*	Supported
H4a	TFL -> AC -> IWPL	0.011	0.029	0.364	0.358	Not supported
H4b	TL -> AC -> IWPL	0.082	0.032	2.599	0.005**	Supported

Notes: SH=Selective hiring, ET=Extensive training, PA=Performance appraisal, CP=Compensation practices, ES=Employment security, PO=Promotion opportunity, EP=Empowerment, IS=Information sharing, TFL= Transformational leadership style, TL=Transactional leadership style, IWPL= informal workplace learning. ** $p < 0.01$ and * $p < 0.05$

According to Hayes (2009) and Preacher and Hayes (2008), while the indirect relationship between independent and dependent variables comes out significant then the mediation considered to be happened. In current study, the six indirect relationships is

evident to be supported ($p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$) while four indirect relationships found to be not supported based on the hypotheses formulated.

Results led this research to conclude that affective commitment significantly mediate the relationship between compensation practices, promotion opportunity, information sharing and informal workplace learning as the t-values exceeded the cut-off value of 1.65 at $p < 0.05$ significance level. As for the relationship of extensive training, empowerment and transactional leadership style, it is found that affective commitment is considerably mediates the relationships at the t-value 2.33 with significance level at $p < 0.01$. However, relationship of selective hiring, performance appraisal, employment security, and transformational leadership style, it is identified that affective commitment not mediates the relationship as the t-value is less than the cut-off value of 1.65 at $p < 0.05$ significance level. Therefore, it can be concluded that hypotheses H3b, H3d, H3f, H3g, H3h and H4b are supported and hypotheses H3a, H3c, H3e, and H4a are not supported.

4.7.3 Assessment of Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The Coefficient of Determination (R^2) is an alternative way of measuring structural model quality in variance-based structural equation modeling, just only goodness-of-fit is in covariance based structural equation modeling (Götz et al., 2010). The value of R^2 is important in the research and there are a number of variations regarding the satisfactory level of R^2 value. According to Falk and Miller (1992), an R^2 is considered as satisfactory if it exceed 1.5 percent. However, Cohen (1988) developed distinct range for R^2 and

recommended that the value ranges from 0.02- 0.12 specifies weak, 0.13-0.25 indicates moderate, and greater than 0.26 is treated as substantial. As per Hair et al. (2011), the consideration of what R^2 value is high, wholly depends on the particular research context. For the dependent variable, the study considered informal workplace learning. During the evaluation of the structural model of this study, the standard PLS algorithm was assessed for the main effect model. The R^2 is found to be 0.455 for informal workplace learning; it is satisfactory as suggested by Cohen (1988). The value of R^2 specifies that the 45.5 percent of the variance in informal workplace learning can be explained by the ten independent variables (selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, promotion opportunity, employment security, empowerment, information sharing, transformational leadership, transactional leadership). The following Table 4.14 shows coefficient of determination (R^2) value.

Table 4.14
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

Latent Construct	R^2
Informal Workplace Learning	0.455

4.7.4 Effect Size (f^2) of the Model

In PLS, measurement of effect size (f^2) is needed. Regarding calculating the effect size, PLS algorithm is performed and report effect size from f^2 values. Cohen (1988) provided the guideline for assessing the magnitude of the effect size and recommended that 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicates small, medium and large effects sizes, respectively. However, Chin et al. (2003) axiom that a small effect size should not be neglected and said “Even a

small interaction effect can be meaningful, if the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these conditions into account” (Chin et al., 2003, p. 211).

The study assessed effect size (f^2) with informal workplace learning to show the substantive significance as shown in Table 4.15. According to the guidelines of Cohen (1988), all the relationships with informal workplace learning show small and insignificant impact. Out of the 10 relationships, selective hiring (0.052), performance appraisal (0.023), empowerment (0.025), information sharing (0.042) have small effect and extensive training (0.011), compensation practices (0.012), employment security (0.000), promotion opportunity (0.000), transformational leadership (0.015), transactional leadership (0.002) have insignificant effect.

Table 4.15
Effect Size (f^2)

Endogenous Construct	Exogenous Construct	Effect Size
Informal Workplace Learning	Selective Hiring	0.052
	Extensive Training	0.011
	Performance Appraisal	0.023
	Compensation Practices	0.012
	Employment Security	0.000
	Promotion Opportunity	0.000
	Empowerment	0.025
	Information sharing	0.042
	Transformational Leadership	0.015
	Transactional Leadership	0.002

4.7.5 Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

In PLS, another important measurement is the Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance (Q^2). This test is considered as an additional assessment of model fit (Duarte & Raposo,

2010). Chin (1998) stated that the Q^2 provides an assessment of how the observed values are reconstructed by the model and its parameter estimates. This estimation is conducted by applying the blindfolding procedure. Blindfolding is a sample reuse approach that drops every d^{th} data point in the endogenous construct's indicators and measures the parameters with the rest of data points (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009). As per Hair et al. (2014), a blindfolding technique should apply only for endogenous constructs that exists a reflective measurement. For the Blindfolding procedure, Hair et al. (2012) recommended an omission distance (OD) of 5 to 10 for most the study.

According to Fornell and Cha (1994) and Hair et al. (2014) provided the opinion that the value of Q^2 higher than zero (0) specifies that the model has predictive relevance for a particular endogenous construct whereas the value of Q^2 less than zero indicates lack of predictive relevance. However, Hair et al. (2014) stated that as a comparative measure of Q^2 , values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 specifies that an exogenous construct has a small, medium, or large predictive relevance for a particular endogenous construct. The current study attain the predictive relevance (Q^2) using the blindfolding technique and the cross-validated redundancy approach (Hair et al., 2014).

For the blindfolding procedure, researcher of the study used omission distance (OD) of 7 as recommended by (Hair et al., 2012). Therefore, the results of Q^2 (0.125) shows that there is substantial evidence of predictive relevance, because the value of the Q^2 exceeds (0). Table 4.16 indicates that the model has acceptable predictive relevance.

Table 4.16

Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

	SSO	SSE	$Q^2 (=1 - \text{SSE/SSO})$
Informal Workplace Learning	3,810.00	3,335.19	0.125

4.7.6 Effect Sizes (q^2)

In PLS, it is also necessary to test the effect size of the predictive relevance (q^2) as like as assessing the effect size (f^2). In this study, the effect size of the predictive relevance (q^2) is computed by conducting PLS blindfolding technique and the cross-validated redundancy approach (Hair et al., 2014).

The results of the q^2 estimation are demonstrated in Table 4.17. Among the ten variables selective hiring have the largest effect size compared to other constructs in the model and considered as insignificant, with q^2 value of 0.009. The other variables, extensive training (0.002), performance appraisal (0.003), compensation practices (0.002), empowerment (0.005), information sharing (0.007) and transformational leadership (0.002) show insignificant effect size. Although the effect is insignificant (Cohen, 1988), however, Chin et al. (2003) argued that even small or insignificant effect is important, if the resultant beta is significant. Besides, employment security (0.000), promotion opportunity (0.000), transactional leadership (0.000) shows insignificant effect. The non-effect exhibited in these variables can be attributed to its non-significant beta (Chin et al., 2003).

Table 4.17
Effect sizes (q^2)

Endogenous Construct	Exogenous Construct	Q2 Incl	Q2 Excl	Q2 Incl -Q2 Excl	1 - Q2 Incl	Effect Size
Informal Workplace Learning	Selective Hiring	0.125	0.117	0.008	0.875	0.009
	Extensive Training	0.125	0.123	0.002	0.875	0.002
	Performance Appraisal	0.125	0.122	0.003	0.875	0.003
	Compensation Practices	0.125	0.123	0.002	0.875	0.002
	Employment Security	0.125	0.125	0.000	0.875	0.000
	Promotion Opportunity	0.125	0.125	0.000	0.875	0.000
	Empowerment	0.125	0.121	0.004	0.875	0.005
	Information sharing	0.125	0.119	0.006	0.875	0.007
	Transformational Leadership	0.125	0.123	0.002	0.875	0.002
	Transactional Leadership	0.125	0.125	0.000	0.875	0.000

4.8 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

This section summarized the entire hypotheses established in the study with calculated result. The total of 20 hypotheses were tested. Out of these 20 hypotheses, the results supported thirteen (13) hypotheses. Table 4.18 represents the summary of hypotheses testing. Ten hypotheses were examined for the direct path analysis and seven were found supported. Whereas, for the mediating path, a total of ten hypotheses are examined and out of those only six are found to be supported.

Table 4.18
Summary of Hypotheses Testing

H. No.	Hypotheses (Direct path)	Results
H1a	Employee perception of selective hiring is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning	Supported
H1b	Employee perception of extensive training is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning	Supported
H1c	Employee perception of performance appraisal is positively	Supported

	related with employees' informal workplace learning	
H1d	Employee perception of compensation practices is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Supported
H1e	Employee perception of employment security is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Not Supported
H1f	Employee perception of promotion opportunity is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Not Supported
H1g	Employee perception of empowerment is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Supported
H1h	Employee perception of information sharing is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Supported
H2a	Employee perception of transformational leadership style is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Supported
H2b	Employee perception of transactional leadership style is positively related with employees' informal workplace learning.	Not supported

H.No.	Hypotheses (Mediating path)	Results
H3a	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of selective hiring and informal workplace learning	Not Supported
H3b	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of extensive training and informal workplace learning.	Supported
H3c	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of performance appraisal and informal workplace learning.	Not Supported
H3d	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of compensation practices and informal workplace learning.	Supported
H3e	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of employment security and informal workplace learning.	Not Supported
H3f	The Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of promotion opportunity and informal workplace learning.	Supported
H3g	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of empowerment and informal workplace learning	Supported
H3h	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of information sharing and informal workplace learning.	Supported
H4a	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between	Not Supported

	employee perceptions of transformational leadership style and informal workplace learning.	
H4b	Affective commitment mediates the relationship between employee perceptions of transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning.	Supported

4.9 Summary of the Chapter

Chapter four established the procedure and results of the data analysis. The chapter began with data collection and response rate followed by data preparation and screening, where data was subjected to coding and data imputation in SPSS version 22 software. Then, the data was screened for entry error, where a few entry errors were detected and corrected. The data was checked for missing values and six questionnaires were omitted for information missing. After that, the data were checked for outliers, normality and multicollinearity using Mahalanobis distance, skewness and kurtosis z-scores and Variance Inflated Factor, respectively. The total of thirteen cases was identified as outliers and dropped from the sample for final analysis. The data demonstrated a non-normal distribution. However, there was no evidence of high correlation among the exogenous constructs in the model.

After making the data ready for the analysis, two models were assessed, the measurement model and the structural model. In order to assess the measurement model, the study examined the reliability of constructs indicators, internal consistency reliability, convergent and discriminant validity and found satisfactory results. After having satisfactory results in the measurement model, the structural model was examined. The

direct and mediating hypotheses were tested, using a bootstrapping procedure (Hair et al., 2014). The total of ten direct hypotheses were tested through the structural model and found seven are statistically significant. Further, the study tested the mediation effect of affective commitment. The total of ten mediation hypotheses were tested through the structural model by the application of bootstrapping and found six are statistically significant and supported. Additionally, the model was assessed through the coefficient of determination (R^2), the effect sizes (f^2), predictive relevance (Q^2) and effect sizes (q^2) and the model offered satisfactory results (Chin, 1998; Chin et al., 2003; Cohen, 1988).



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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The final and last chapter of the study commence with the recapitulation of the study followed by the detail discussion of the key findings. This chapter clearly details out the discussions of the result that are provided in Chapter Four based on the four objectives of the study. Based on the research findings, this chapter also highlights the theoretical and practical implications of the study. Moreover, after creating some insights from the research result, the study proposed a good number of directions for future research in the related field. In addition, this chapter provides the limitations of the study. Finally, through the conclusion of the chapter, the summary of the overall study is presented.

5.2 Recapitulation of the Study

Initially, the study seeks to examine the relationship between human resource management practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. Moreover, this study also seeks to investigate the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between human resource management practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning. The theoretical framework under this study is underpinned with the theory of situated learning. In order to attain the goal, the study has used quantitative technique to validate and asses the hypothesized relationship depicted in the

research framework using a sample of departmental head working in the branches of private commercial banks (PCB's) in Bangladesh.

Considerable number of literature has been discussed in Chapter Two to comprehend the influence of human resource management practices, leadership style, and affective commitment on informal workplace learning. The proposed research framework explained in Chapter Three shows human resource management practices and leadership style as independent variables, affective commitment as mediating variable and informal workplace learning as dependent variable. The proposed research framework has been justified with proper argument and explanation. According to the operational measurements, the study considered a total of 97 items for measuring the studied variables based on the scale developed by several earlier studies. However, some modifications or adjustments have been done by considering the contextual necessities.

The unit of analysis of the study was the employees working as head of the department of branches of private commercial banks operating in Dhaka division of Bangladesh. Data collection process and data preparation has been discussed after pretesting the questionnaire and finalize it through pilot study. A total 381 sample size was used for final analysis. For analyzing the data, this study used both descriptive and inferential statistics. Regarding data analysis, this study used the second generation technique namely the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Two different types of SEM are generally used such as the covariance-based SEM which is also known as CB-SEM and the partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM) which is also called as variance based SEM. In

order to add some advantages this study considered the partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM).

5.3 Discussion of Findings on the Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices and Informal Workplace Learning.

In every organization there must be HRM practices by which organization manage their employees effectively. HRM practices are important tool that integrates knowledge in organization and increase employees' informal workplace learning. Earlier, a number of scholars argued that, HRM practices can enhance informal workplace learning of employees (Camps & Luna-Arocas, 2012; Chahal et al., 2016; Hayton, 2003; McLean, 2006; Shipton et al., 2016; Theriou & Chatzoglou, 2014).

Based on the concept of the situated learning theory the study formulate the first objective and use different HRM practices namely, selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment and information sharing as the independent variable to test their direct impact on informal workplace learning in private commercial banking sector of Bangladesh. Earlier researchers studied such practices to show their impact on learning in workplace in different context as discussed in Chapter Two and found some diverse relationship. Therefore, the following subsection shows the discussion on findings of direct relationships between different HRM practices and informal workplace learning.

5.3.1 The Relationship between Selective Hiring and Informal Workplace Learning

Selective hiring is considered as one of the important factors that enhance informal learning (Swart and Kinnie (2010). The finding of the study indicates that there is a positive and significant relationship between selective hiring and informal workplace learning. This finding is consistent with the findings of earlier studies conducted in different context. For instance, López-Cabrales et al. (2011) found that selective hiring is significantly and positively related with learning which is informal in nature. Similarly, Zhai et al. (2014) in their study also confirmed that selective hiring is positively associated with learning.

The possible reasons of this findings in this study is that in case of selecting employees, private commercial banks pay more attention on specific qualities, knowledge and skills of candidates that leads to enhance learning in workplace. Specific qualities of a candidates for selecting a particular position includes specific degree or certification, cumulative grade point average (CGPA) or academic results, desired personal traits, good moral and ethical standard. In addition to that, rigorous interviews and aptitudes tests are conducted by private commercial banks for selecting employees. Moreover, selection of employees with the appropriate personality traits and values will increase knowledge exchange activities (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005). In private commercial banks of Bangladesh, employees who are working as a departmental head of branch are selectively hired. As they are selectively hired they may share their knowledge, skill and

experience with each other. They are doing interdepartmental knowledge exchange which ultimately enhances their learning. Therefore, selective hiring is positively and significantly related with informal workplace learning.

5.3.2 The Relationship between Extensive Training and Informal Workplace Learning

Training is one of the key indicators that enhance informal workplace learning (Chahal et al., 2016). It is also a platform for employees to attain and exchange new knowledge with each other (Ramirez & Li, 2009). Moreover, training plays a vital role for attaining competitive advantage in the global competitive environment (Schuler & MacMillan, 1984).

The result of the study indicates that there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between extensive training and informal workplace learning. The study result is consistent with study done by Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) where they found that extensive training significantly positively related with learning which is informal in nature. Jerez-Gomez et al. (2005) also provided the evidence that continuous training increases informal learning capability because it helps in acquisition, generation and transfer of new knowledge. Training has positive effect on knowledge management and learning because training plays a vital role in maintaining and developing individual capabilities and a learning-oriented organizational culture (Chen & Huang, 2009; Jerez-Gomez et al., 2005; Liu & Liu, 2011). In fact, training is systematic effort that modifies

and develop knowledge, skill and attitudes by creating opportunities of learning and helps to perform task successfully (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003). Moreover, training provides the right direction of learning. The possible reason of this findings is that private commercial banks identify the training needs of employees and provide time to time necessary training to employees which equip the employees with skill and knowledge and satisfy individual's and organization's goals. Banks provides continuous extensive trainings such as monthly, quarterly and yearly training which lead to enhance informal learning of employees. Bank also provides just-in-training which may have maximum impact on learning. Moreover, private commercial banks emphasis on training because it provides an environment for employees to not only gain new knowledge, but also exchanges their knowledge with others. Training provides opportunities to share knowledge through informal discussion between two or more individuals. Besides, in private commercial banks, training provides an environment for departmental heads to exchange whatever knowledge they have with others. As the departmental heads receive proper training, they are actively engage in a problem solving process or challenging task with confidence and share their experience with others. Thus, the finding of the study indicates that extensive training is needed to enhance informal workplace learning.

5.3.3 The Relationship between Performance Appraisal and Informal Workplace Learning

Performance appraisal is considered as one of the important HRM practices that can enhance the informal workplace learning. According to Selvarajan and Cloninger (2012)

and Ulrich et al. (1993) systematic and effective performance appraisal is pertinent for learning, knowledge exchanging and knowledge managing. Performance appraisal is related with employees' learning in workplace because learning takes place when employees perceive that change is required to make them updated and to achieve the goals of the organization.

As expected through hypothesis development, the findings enunciated a strong positive and statistically significant relationship between performance appraisal and informal workplace learning. The finding indicates that private commercial banks maintain proper performance appraisal of employees, it positively influence their informal workplace learning. The possible reason of this finding is that, to enhance workplace learning, banks highly focus on accurate, valid, reliable, feasible, acceptable and feedback based performance appraisal. Private commercial banks of Bangladesh are also using key performance indicators (KPI) for measuring and evaluating the performance of employees and provide timely feedback which has greatest influence on learning of employees in workplace. Timely and feedback based performance appraisal helps employees to identify their lacking and inspire them to develop their competency through learning. Thus, performance appraisal acts as an important driver to enhance informal workplace learning.

The findings of the study is consistent with the study done previous scholars where they identified that performance appraisal is positively and significantly related with knowledge sharing, knowledge transfers and other types of informal learning in

workplace (Lopez-Cabrales et al., 2009; Pervaiz et al., 2016). The result of the study also supported by the study done by Bednall et al. (2014) where they confirms that performance appraisal is significantly and positively related with informal workplace learning. The result of the study also indicates that as private commercial banks used feedback based performance appraisal as well as KPI to measure performance of departmental heads, therefore, departmental heads are inspired to learn and share knowledge among themselves and others. Thus performance appraisal enhances informal workplace learning.

5.3.4 The Relationship between Compensation Practices and Informal Workplace Learning

The study examined the relationship between compensation practices and informal workplace learning. As per the expectation, the findings of the study revealed that compensation practice is significantly and positively related with informal workplace learning. The finding of the study specifies that compensation practice is one of the important elements of human resource management practices that enhance informal workplace learning. Moreover, the finding of the study indicates that, private commercial banks may provide attractive compensation package to employees which is internally and externally equitable and reflects standard of living and that may lead to enhance informal workplace learning. Result of the study is consonant with the finding of previous study conducted by Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) where they found that compensation practices significantly and positively influence learning which is informal in nature.

Previously researchers also found that compensation is positively related to knowledge sharing of employees (Bock et al., 2005; Swart & Kinnie, 2010). Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, (2013) argued that when organization offers incentive for knowledge sharing and learning then employees involved in experimentation and learning. Moreover, Sanders and Lin (2016) mentioned that performance related compensation positively related with informal workplace learning. Compensation mechanism such as extrinsic and intrinsic reward motivates employees to learn in workplace and managing knowledge (McGill, Slocum, & Lei, 1992). The finding of the study indicates that when employees' perceived to be compensated properly they will be motivated to involve in informal workplace learning which is also complying with the theory of situated learning. Indeed, the result of the study signifies that in private commercial banks, employees who are working as a departmental head may feel that they are compensated properly. Therefore, departmental head of the branches of private commercial banks engage in problem solving process and share their knowledge, skill and experience with others. Thus, compensation practices enhance informal workplace learning.

5.3.5 The Relationship between Employment Security and Informal Workplace Learning

Employment security is considered as one of the important factors that enhance informal workplace learning of employees (Lipshitz et al., 2006). The result of the study revealed that employment security is positively related but statistically insignificant with informal

workplace learning. There are a number evidences that employment security positively affects informal workplace learning. For example, Chen et al. (2011) argued that employment security can enhance informal workplace learning such as knowledge sharing, information communicating etc. Oltra and Alegre (2011) Oltra and Alegre (2011) also mentioned that employment security positively affects knowledge optimizing learning in workplace.

However, the finding of the current study is consistent with previous studies from different perspectives. Jung (2014) found the positive but insignificant relationship between employment security for software technician and their innovative capacity. He explained that employees might not share and exchange knowledge whenever they feel fear about losing their competitive advantage which leads to loss their job.

The finding of an insignificant relationship between employment security and informal learning indicates that to enhance informal workplace learning employment security is required but it is not that much significant in the context PCB's of Bangladesh. There may some possible reasons behind this insignificant relationship. First of all, employment security provided by employers in banks is not much trustworthy to employees (Khan, 2013). In this sector, management can fire employees any time due to economic and contextual reasons. In private commercial banks employees may be feared about quit of employment contract, threat of job loss, wrongly dismissed of job. Banks may not provide security regarding the tenure of job, retirement of job and status of job. Thus, employees may not feel free to share knowledge in this situation. Secondly, it may also

possible that employees in banks are not fear about losing their job rather they believe that they can certainly get another job somewhere else, if they lose their current job. In such case, employees may not share their learning and knowledge for losing their competitive advantage. Moreover, in private commercial banks employees who are working as a departmental head of branch may feel fear about losing their job or losing their self competency and knowledge. Thus, employment security exists in private commercial banks may not significantly encourage the departmental head to engage in sharing and exchanging knowledge, discussion and problem solving among themselves and other's. Therefore, it can be said that, employment security should be trustworthy for better informal workplace learning.

5.3.6 The Relationship between Promotion Opportunity and Informal Workplace Learning

Informal workplace learning is the function of multiple variables. Among them promotion opportunity is one of the important variables that enhance informal workplace learning. Promotion opportunity inspires employees to learn informally in workplace and improve their efforts to the betterment of organization. The finding of the current study expose that promotion opportunity is positively related with informal workplace learning but statistically insignificant. Some reasons may be assumed behind this insignificant relationship. Firstly, promotion in private commercial banks is very slow due to the lack of available positions or de-layering (Khan, 2013). Secondly, regarding promotion of employees, private commercial banks may emphasis on seniority rather than merit,

knowledge and skills. Here, merits indicates the past achievement not future success. In consistent with the collectivist nature of the society which places more emphasis on relationships (Reichel, Mayrhofer, & Chudzikowski, 2009), employees may get promotion solely based on seniority, irrespective of merit, additional qualifications or performance (Jacobs, 2009; Mahmood & Nurul Absar, 2015; Swailes & Al Fahdi, 2010). Therefore, merit and knowledge is not the sole criteria for promotion. Thus, promotion opportunities may not significantly encourage the departmental head to engage in problem solving process, sharing and exchanging knowledge among themselves and with others.

5.3.7 The Relationship between Empowerment and Informal Workplace Learning

Empowerment is one of key factor of human resource management practices that can play a significant role for enhancing informal workplace learning. Empowerment provides freedom, autonomy, self-determination, authority and responsibility to employees in their job (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014) which creates positive attitude towards informal workplace learning.

The result of the study revealed that there is strong, significant and positive relationship between empowerment and informal workplace learning. The result indicates that, private commercial banks may provide considerable freedom and independence to their employees about their job. Employees can take decision about how to get their job done and have a great deal of control about what happens in their department, therefore employees highly engaged in informal workplace learning.

The findings of the study is consonant with the study done by Jaw and Liu (2003) where they found that learning oriented HRM practice such as empowerment significantly and positively related with employees' attitude towards learning which is informal in nature. Moreover, number of previous studies in different context also found that empowerment is positively related with informal workplace learning (Allahyari et al., 2011; Darvish & Norozi, 2011; Safari et al., 2011). Therefore, in the context of private commercial banks in Bangladesh, it can be said that empowerment is one of the important driver of HRM that can enhance informal workplace learning. In private commercial banks, employees who are working as a departmental head of branch may feel that they are empowered by bank which encourages them to involve in problem solving process, sharing knowledge and experience among themselves and with others. Thus, empowerment significantly influences learning.

5.3.8 The Relationship between Information Sharing and Informal Workplace Learning

One of the vital factors of informal workplace learning is information sharing which develop knowledge and skills of employees. Information sharing enhances learning through collaborating, exchanging ideas and problem solving. The current study revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between information sharing and informal workplace learning. The finding of the study specify that private commercial banks of Bangladesh may regularly informed employees about their investment, new technologies, technological orientation, new products and services, financial result, unit

performance, customer satisfaction which encourage them to involve informal learning in workplace.

The finding of the study is consistent with the previous study conducted by Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) where they found that information sharing is significantly positively related with learning. Information sharing practices offers the opportunity to employees for internalization of organizational target where employees sense valued by organization and improve their knowledge and skills for over all organizational success (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rodwell et al., 1998). Therefore, the finding of the study indicates that when employees perceive that there is an opportunity of open communication and easy information sharing then they can involve more in informal workplace learning. In private commercial banks, employees who are working as a departmental head of branch may perceive that they have huge opportunities to share information and this opportunity encourage them to engage in exchanging knowledge, skill and experience and among themselves and others.

5.4 Discussion of Findings on the Relationship between Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

Leadership style is one of the important organizational factors by which manager motivate the employees to achieve the desirable outcomes. Earlier researchers mentioned that as an important organizational factors leadership affects the informal workplace

learning and skill development of employees (Berson et al., 2006; Froehlich et al., 2014; García-Morales et al., 2012; Hasson et al., 2016).

Based on the concept of the situated learning theory, the study formulate the second objective and use different leadership style namely, transformational and transactional leadership style as the independent variables to test their direct impact on informal workplace learning in private commercial banking sector of Bangladesh. Earlier, researchers studied such practices to show their effect on informal workplace learning in different context as discussed in Chapter Two and found some diverse relationship. Therefore, the following subsection shows the discussion on findings of direct relationships between different leadership style and informal workplace learning.

5.4.1 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

Transformational leadership is one of the important leadership styles that play an important role for enhancing informal learning in workplace. Transformational leadership style indicates such type of leadership style by which leaders direct and encourage followers towards informal learning in workplace (Avolio, 1999; Sosik & Jung, 2010). The finding of this study revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership style and informal workplace learning. This finding indicates that banks may focus on transformational leadership style which emphasis on idealized

influence, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and inspirational motivation on followers which ultimately encourage employees to learn informally in workplace.

Previously a number of studies stated that transformational leadership facilitates learning in workplace and it considered as a vital factor of individual learning in workplace (Crawford, 2005; Hetland, Skogstad, Hetland, & Mikkelsen, 2011; Naot, Lipshitz, & Popper, 2004; García-Morales et al., 2012; Coad and Berry (1998). Moreover, the finding of the study is consonant with the study conducted by Froehlich et al. (2014) where they found that transformational leadership style is significantly related with informal deep learning of followers. Loon et al. (2012) also found that, there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and individual learning in workplace. Moreover, transformational leader increase the learning and innovation of employees in organization (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Jung et al., 2008; Zahay & Handfield, 2004). Thus, result of the study also supports the theme of the situated learning theory in describing the relationship between transformational leadership and informal workplace learning.

5.4.2 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

The result of the study revealed that there is no relationship between transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning. This result contrast with the study done by Bernsen et al. (2009) where they found that transactional leadership is significantly

positively associated with disorganized learning. In their study they mentioned that such kind of learning is essential at the time of organizational change where new knowledge is required to continue work practices. However, the current study found there is no relationship between transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning which is consistent with other previous studies. Kurland et al., (2010) conducted a study on school teachers in Israel where they found that there is no relationship between transactional leadership and learning through exchanging knowledge which focus is on informal in nature. Moreover, the finding of the current study indicates that, in private commercial banks, transactional leadership may focus on controlling and coordinating others by ensuring the provision of reward and punishment. Reward is also the indirect threat of punishment. Transactional leadership style also gives more attention on exchange relationship rather than idealized influence, stimulates intellectually, and considered individually. Exchange relationship may enhance productivity in short term however for enhancing informal learning intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, ideal influence and personal considerations are largely needed. In addition, employees behavior might fluctuate within day to day activities and leadership styles in the organization varies depending on the regular fluctuation of employees activities (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Therefore, transactional leadership may not have any influence on employees working as departmental heads in branches of private commercial banks for exchanging knowledge, experience and learning among themselves and others.

5.5 Discussion of Findings on Mediating effect of Affective Commitment on the Relationship Between HRM Practices and Informal Workplace Learning

Previously, researchers conducted study on considering the relationship between HRM practices and employees as well as organizational outcomes. However, the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between HRM practices and employees outcome is still limited. Based on the theory of situated learning, the study formulate the third objective and use affective commitment as mediating variable to test its impact on the relationship between HRM practices namely, selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, employment security, promotion opportunity, empowerment and information sharing and informal workplace learning in private commercial banking sector of Bangladesh. Therefore, the following sub section shows the discussion on findings of mediation effect of affective commitment on aforesaid relationship.

5.5.1 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Selective Hiring and Informal Workplace Learning

Earlier, researchers in the human resource management considered selective hiring to enhance affective commitment of employees that produces better outcomes (Gould-Williams et al., 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013). The finding of the study revealed that the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between selective hiring and informal workplace learning is insignificant. There may be some possible reasons

behind this insignificant finding. Researcher found that selective hiring has direct positive and significant effect on informal workplace learning. Intervening factor may not have significant effect on this relationship. Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) identified that, rigorous selection process is not a significant predictor of affective commitment rather individuals who fit with organization have higher level of affective commitment. Moreover, in banking sector of Bangladesh, selection process is highly competitive and employers recruit employees with higher qualifications and experience, thus selectively hired knowledgeable employees are always involved in informal workplace learning to make them up-to-date with the job market. Therefore, as selective hiring directly and significantly affects informal workplace learning, affective commitment does not significantly mediate the relationship between selective hiring and informal workplace learning. In private commercial banks, employees who are working as a departmental head of branch are engaged in exchanging knowledge, skill and experience with themselves and others through action and interaction without considering any intervention as they are selectively hired. Thus, affective commitment does not significantly mediate the relationship between selective hiring and informal workplace learning of departmental head of branch.

5.5.2 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Extensive Training and Informal Workplace Learning

By examining the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between extensive training and informal workplace learning, the study found that affective commitment significantly mediates the relationship between extensive training and

informal workplace learning. This result indicates that extensive training increase informal workplace learning via affective commitment of employees. At the same time extensive training also has a direct significant effect on informal workplace learning. Thus, extensive training is positively related with affective commitment (Yu & Egri, 2005) and informal workplace learning of employees (Chahal et al., 2016). Whenever employees perceives adequate, proper and timely training from the organization they may being affectively committed which leads them to enhance learning in the workplace. Thus, affective commitment mediates the relationship between extensive training and informal workplace learning. Through the mediation of affective commitment extensive training may encourage employees working as a head of the department of branches in private commercial banks to involve in problem solving process and share knowledge, skill and experiences with themselves and others. Therefore, informal learning of departmental heads enhanced by extensive training through mediation of affective commitment.

5.5.3 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Performance Appraisal and Informal Workplace Learning

The study also examined the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between performance appraisal and informal workplace learning. The result revealed that the insignificant mediation of affective commitment on the relationship between performance appraisal and informal workplace learning. The possible reason is that performance appraisal is directly and significantly associated with informal workplace learning. Karim and Noor (2007) identified that feedback based performance

appraisal is not a significant predictor of affective organizational commitment. Most of the private commercial banks have formal performance measurement system. When formal feedback based performance appraisal system are maintained properly by organization then employees give more emphasis on learning and innovation. In private commercial banks, employees who are working as a departmental head of branch are engaged in exchanging knowledge, skill and experience with themselves and others through action and interaction without considering any intervention as they perceive they have feedback based performance appraisal. Thus, affective commitment does not significantly mediates the relationship between performance appraisal and informal workplace learning of departmental of head of branch.

5.5.4 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Compensation Practices and Informal Workplace Learning

In this study affective commitment is considered as mediator between compensation practices and informal workplace learning and the findings shows that affective commitment significantly mediates the relationship between compensation practice and informal workplace learning. The result of the current study indicates that compensation practice is one of the important predictor that increases affective commitment as well as informal workplace learning. Yang (2012) identified that, compensation practice significantly affect the affective commitment. Moreover, compensation practice has strong and significant influence on informal workplace learning (Zhai et al., 2014). Whenever employees perceive that their compensation is internally and externally

equitable, their affectivity towards organization will automatically increase which ultimately beef up informal workplace learning. Thus, affective commitment mediates the relationship between compensation practices and informal workplace learning. Through the mediation of affective commitment compensation practices may encourage employees working as a head of the department of branches in private commercial banks to engage in problem solving process and share knowledge, skill and experiences with themselves and others. Therefore, informal learning of departmental heads is enhanced by compensation practices through mediation of affective commitment.

5.5.5 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Employment Security and Informal Workplace Learning

The mediating role of affective commitment on the relationship between employment security and informal learning appears to be insignificant. Some reasons can be assumed behind this non-significant finding of the mediating effect. Researcher in this study found that employment security is positively related but not significant with informal learning. In addition, Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) identified that, employment security is not a significant predictor of affective commitment. Moreover, in private commercial banks employees who are working as a departmental head of branch may feel fear about job loss, wrongly dismissed of job and retirement of job as well as losing their own competency. Employment security exists in private commercial banks may not significantly enhance the departmental head affective commitment which lead to encourage them to involve in informal workplace learning. Indeed, in private commercial

banks, employment security may not encourage the departmental head to share their knowledge, skill and experience with each other through the mediation of affective commitment. Therefore, the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between employment security and informal workplace learning is insignificant.

5.5.6 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Promotion Opportunity and Informal Workplace Learning

This study examined the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between promotion opportunity and informal workplace learning. As per expectation, the result of the study revealed that affective commitment significantly mediates the relationship between promotion opportunity and informal workplace learning. The finding indicates that employees are the sole contributor of service organization like private commercial banks and the success of banks totally depends on the contribution of employees. Employees may show high affective commitment when they have huge opportunities of promotion. (Gardner et al., 2011) in their study revealed that promotion opportunity positively affect the affective commitment which leads to enhance employees' outcome. Hence, it can be clarified that organization should concern about employees' promotion opportunities which enhance their affective commitment that ultimately enhance informal workplace learning. Thus, affective commitment mediates the relationship between promotion opportunity and informal workplace learning. Through the mediation of affective commitment promotion opportunity may encourage employees working as a head of the department of branches in private commercial banks

to engage in problem solving process and share knowledge, skill and experiences with themselves and others. Therefore, informal learning of departmental heads is enhanced by promotion opportunity through mediation of affective commitment.

5.5.7 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Empowerment and Informal Workplace Learning

This study also analyzes the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between empowerment and informal workplace learning. The findings of the study explored a significant mediating role of affective commitment on the relationship between empowerment and informal workplace learning. Empowerment provides discretion to employees to make decision regarding day to day job related activities (Bowen & Lawler, 1992). When employees perceive that they are empowered in organization, they carry out additional duties, perform extra-role, and show higher discretion at work. Empowerment also inspired employees to get more involved in learning and development. Moreover, the result of the study specifies that empowerment enhance affective commitment which leads to increase informal workplace learning. Tata and Prasad (2004) also pointed out that empowerment increase affectivity of employees. Empowerment not only provides power to its employees in organization for increasing affective commitment but also creates opportunity for continuous learning and development. Therefore, it can be said that when organization empowered their employees, their affective commitment towards organization greatly increased which is needed for informal workplace learning. Thus, affective commitment mediates the relationship between empowerment and informal workplace learning. Through the

mediation of affective commitment empowerment may encourage employees working as a head of the department of branches in private commercial banks to involve in problem solving process and share knowledge, skill and experiences with one another. Therefore, informal learning of departmental heads is enhanced by empowerment through mediation of affective commitment.

5.5.8 Affective commitment mediates the relationship between Information Sharing and Informal Workplace Learning

By examining the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between information sharing and informal workplace learning, the result of the study reveals that the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between information sharing and informal workplace learning is significant. This result indicates that information sharing increase the affective commitment of employees which ultimately enhance informal workplace learning. Information sharing is an active motivator of employees in private commercial banks by which employees feel privileges from management and organization. If employees perceives that they are getting privilege in information sharing in their organization their affective commitment towards organization boasted up and ultimately it hence their informal workplace learning in a large extent. Whenever employees' perceives opportunities are available to freely exchange their knowledge, ideas and information with management then affective commitment of employees will be enhanced because employees understand organization is devoted to help them for performing their responsibilities. Higher level of information

sharing increases affective commitment which leads to enhance informal learning in workplace. Therefore, it can be said that private commercial banks of Bangladesh provides greater attention on information sharing to increase affective commitment which ultimately enhance informal workplace learning. Thus, affective commitment mediates the relationship between information sharing and informal workplace learning. Through the mediation of affective commitment information sharing may encourage employees working as a head of the department of branches in private commercial banks to share knowledge, skill and experiences with one another. Therefore, informal learning of departmental heads is enhanced by information sharing through mediation of affective commitment.

5.6 Discussion of Findings on Mediating effect of Affective commitment on the Relationship between Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

Earlier, researchers conducted study on considering the relationship between leadership styles and employees as well as organizational outcomes. However, the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between leadership and employees outcomes is still scant. Based on the theory of situated learning, the study formulate the fourth objective and use affective commitment as mediating variable to test the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between leadership styles namely, transformational and transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning in private commercial banking sector of Bangladesh. Therefore, the following sub section

shows the discussion on findings of mediation effect of affective commitment on the aforesaid relationship.

5.6.1 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

This study examined the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between transformational leadership style and informal workplace learning. The findings of the study revealed that the mediation effect of affective commitment on the aforementioned relationship is insignificant. The insignificant mediation of affective commitment may happen due to several reasons. In this study, researcher found that transformational leadership style is positively and significantly associated with informal workplace learning. Chan and Mak (2014) identified that transformational leadership is not a significant predictor of affective commitment. Moreover, private commercial bank motivates employees through the characteristics of transformational leadership style which encourage employees to directly involve in learning in workplace. In private commercial banks, employees who are working as a departmental head of branch are engaged in exchanging knowledge, skill and experience with one another through action and interaction without considering any intervention as they perceive that the leadership style is transformational. Thus, affective commitment does not significantly mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and informal workplace learning of departmental of head of branch.

5.6.2 Affective Commitment Mediates the Relationship between Transactional Leadership Style and Informal Workplace Learning

This study tested the mediation effect of affective commitment on the relationship between transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning. Result of the study revealed that affective commitment mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning. Previously, various scholars argued that transactional leadership style increase affective commitment of employees (Clinebell et al., 2013) and affective commitment leads to enhance informal workplace learning (Peltokorpi, 2004). As transactional leadership style enhances affective commitment and affective commitment enhance informal workplace learning, therefore, affective commitment significantly mediates this relationship. Moreover, Kim and Lee (2011) in their study found that transactional leadership have no direct effect on employees outcomes rather it has indirect effect on employees outcomes. Through the mediation of affective commitment transactional leadership style may encourage employees working as a head of the department of branches in private commercial banks to engage in problem solving process and share knowledge, skill and experiences with one another. Therefore, informal learning of departmental heads is enhanced by information sharing through mediation of affective commitment.

5.7 Contribution and Implication

5.7.1 Theoretical Contribution

Informal workplace learning is well thought-out as one of significant issues in today's holistic business environment because of its important contribution to the individual and organizational development. In the last few decades, researchers are growing their interest to study on informal workplace learning.

It is still a debatable issue what constitutes a theoretical contribution. According to Whetten (2009) formulations of new theory or expansion of existing ones is considered a contribution to theory. Along with same line, Phillips and Pugh (2010) argued on what makes a PhD work unique. It includes, among others, synthesizing what was earlier fragmented, introduce new construct to an existing theory and so on. Therefore, the theoretical contribution of this empirical study includes the integrated framework on informal workplace learning and findings of this study that provides the insights into current literatures on informal workplace learning.

As per situated learning theory, individual factors (Berg & Chyung, 2008) and organizational factors (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Islam & Khan, 2014; Pircher, Zenk, & Risku, 2007; Cerasoli et al, 2014) can play an important role for enhancing informal workplace learning. More specifically, organizational factors namely HRM practices and leadership style can increase informal workplace learning (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Pircher et al., 2007; Wen, Chang, Lee, & Wei, 2014; Cerasoli et al, 2014). Besides HRM

practices and leadership, affective commitment is needed for learning because HRM practices and leadership affect informal learning directly as well as indirectly through the mediation of affective commitment. Affective commitment is needed to learn because it increases the sense of belonging that generate interest to learn in workplace (Wen et al., 2014). Moreover, employees who are affectively committed are more willing to “go beyond job specification, to share solutions to problems with coworkers, encouraging them to contribute with suggestions and ideas for service improvements” (Lages & Piercy, 2012, p. 4). All these traits include learning from and with others in the organization and form learning in workplace. Corso, Giacobbe, and Martini (2009) argued that, organization should give more emphasis on its levers which increase commitment of its employees in order to learn effectively in workplace.

In the last decades studies have been conducted on informal workplace learning which are fragmented. Earlier researcher conducted study on identifying the relationship between HRM practices and informal learning, leadership styles and informal learning. However, the relationships between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace learning in a single model have not been thoroughly studied yet. Moreover, the mediating effect of affective commitment on this relationship is still unexplored. There is a dearth of literature on informal workplace learning by considering all these factors in a single model. Hence, the current study focused on multiple organizational factors in a single frame namely HRM practices and leadership styles with informal workplace learning to provide comprehensive literature and empirical evidences from the context of private commercial banks of Bangladesh. The study also included the

mediating variable affective commitment on the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and informal workplace in order to enrich the prevailing literature and supplement the theory of situated learning.

5.7.2 Practical Implication

Apart from the theoretical contributions, several significant implications can be drawn for the government, owner, managers, practitioners, and policy makers. This section represents some important key points for government, owner and manager of the bank, private organization, practitioners and policy makers based on the findings of the study.

Government of a country monitors and controls the banking sector through the central bank. Central bank makes various policies for the betterment of banking sector and employees working in this sector. Central bankers can take the lesson from the findings of this study for their future course of action. As it is evident that HRM practices and leadership style works as an essential element for the betterment of employees learning, they can make policies for bank to practice proper HRM and show appropriate leadership style for enhancing informal learning in workplace.

For managers, assistant managers, head of the departments and owners of PCB's involved in informal workplace learning efforts, the outcomes of this study provides some valuable suggestions. Informal workplace learning initiatives will not be successful without the participation of the employees to exchange their learning and experiments with the other members of the organization or contribute their knowledge to

organization's knowledge hub. In view of that, to inspire informal workplace learning among the employees working in branches of private commercial banks, there is an essential requirement to pay attention to the design of the bank's human resource management practices and leadership style. The management of organization can generate the idea from this research about enhancement of informal workplace learning and the significance of human resource management practices and leadership style that may lead to enhance informal workplace learning. This kind of idea may help them to increase informal workplace learning.

The practitioners involving researchers and policy makers can certainly use the research results for future research and for designing policy initiatives. Based on the importance of human resource management practices, leadership styles as well as the mediating role of affective commitment, policy makers can take endeavor to strengthen the banking sector for overall economic development. They can even design some plans for enhancement of informal workplace learning and the organizational as well as personal factors they need before going to implement informal workplace learning.

Therefore, based on the findings, different stakeholders associated with banking sector can define the probable roles they can play or are assumed to play which may facilitates the decision makers and managers, assistant managers, head of the departments to enhance their future informal learning success.

5.8 Recommendations

The study examined how human resource management practices and leadership styles affect the informal workplace learning of private commercial banks operating in Bangladesh. In addition to that, affective commitment considered as the mediator. The study applied the quantitative research techniques and employed structured questionnaires as the research instrument. Moreover, the study applied the Partial Least Squares to Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) technique for data analysis. The study formulates a set of recommendations based on the findings, as enumerated below, for policy initiatives.

The findings of the study revealed that human resource management practice is one of the important predictors for informal workplace learning. HRM practices, particularly selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practice, empowerment and information sharing, have a significant direct effect on the informal workplace learning. On the other hand, extensive training, compensation practices, promotion opportunity, empowerment and information sharing plays a significant role in inspiring informal workplace learning through the mediating effect of affective commitment. Based on these findings, it is recommended that management of private commercial banks that want to inspire informal workplace learning must know how these practices influence informal workplace learning. Moreover, other stakeholders including central bank should provide guidelines to private commercial banks to design better HRM practices that encourage employees to participate informal workplace learning.

The finding of the study also revealed that there is an in-significant relationship between employees' perception regarding some of the HRM practices (i.e. employment security, promotion opportunity) and their effect on informal workplace learning. Since, these practices are not influencing informal workplace learning as expected, banks should identify the reasons behind this situation. The results also suggested that manager or human resource practitioner of private commercial banks should designed HRM practices in a way that ensure employment security and promotion opportunity for enhancing informal workplace learning. Moreover, management should collect necessary information to make improvement with respect to HRM practices.

The study examined the relationship between leadership style and informal workplace learning and found that leadership style, specifically the transformational leadership style significantly and positively affects the informal workplace learning. This finding implies that organization that follows transformational leadership style can free-flow better informal workplace learning. Besides, this study shows that transactional leadership style has no direct relationship with informal workplace learning. Interestingly, in this study, transactional leadership does not have a direct impact on informal learning, but had an indirect impact through affective commitment. It can be interpreted by the notion that affective commitment is regarded as one of the important attitudinal factors that enable or encourage employee's informal workplace learning. Therefore, management should be aware about affective commitment when applying transactional leadership style. This study also shows insignificant indirect impact of transformational leadership style on informal learning through affective commitment. Although in this study, transformational

leadership style has been regarded as an important factor for informal workplace learning that directly influence informal learning. Therefore, management should consider transformational leadership style for enhancing informal learning.

In addition, management should recognize that informal workplace learning is highly important for enhancing knowledge and skill of employees, which is the vital element for achieving competitive advantages. Therefore, the design of the HRM practices and leadership styles should be tailored towards enhancing informal workplace learning among employees.

5.9 Limitations of the Study

While the research design was set up properly to address the research objectives and focus was provided to the critical elements of the study, still this research is not free from some limitations. Though this study revealed some important findings, there are a few limitations that require to be acknowledged.

First of all, the present study followed cross-sectional study approach rather than a longitudinal approach. The study considered HRM practices, leadership styles and employees informal workplace learning at one point of time and did not observe the effect of these factors on informal workplace learning over time. On the contrary, the longitudinal study offers the researcher a superior position to draw causal conclusions.

Hence, the findings of the study may not be presumed to be in a similar fashion and consonant over time.

Secondly, the scope of study was limited to Dhaka division of Bangladesh out of seven divisions. Most of the branches of private commercial banks are concentrated in Dhaka division and the nature of branches all over Bangladesh is similar; the findings have been generalized. However, employee perceives HRM practices from the way of its implementation and these practices are being implemented by the manager of each branch may differ from branch to branch. Moreover, the generalization of the results may be limited in a real sense for the service sector of overall country. Alike, the result of the study cannot be generalized for other countries of the world because the scope of the study is only for Bangladesh and the nature of private commercial banks differ all over the world regarding various characteristics.

Thirdly, the current study used a structured questionnaire that was grounded on a self-report by the employees of private commercial banks. Hence, the question of common method variance was associated in this regard. According to Avolio, Yammarino, and Bass (1991) this biases is highly problematic in testing the relationships among attitudinal or psychological data gathered from a single respondent at one time. This is a difficulty in research where the variability of response overlaps because of data being collected from a single source. This is particularly a problem when the data for the study are in fact individual perceptions, and hence are not factual data. In this case, both the independent

and dependent variable are perceptions data. Although the present study did not confront such a problem, the researcher may deliberate this issue a possible limitation of the study.

Nonetheless, although these limitations indicates that the explanation of the findings should be used with some caution, the results presented in this study provided some new insights and a superior understanding about HRM practices, leadership styles and their impact, affective commitment and informal workplace learning in the context of private commercial banks. Therefore, hopefully, the manager, assistant manager, head of the department of branches as well as society might get the benefits by using the research findings carefully.

5.10 Directions for Future Research

This research can be expanded in several ways, although the study has some limitations. First and foremost, as this research followed the cross-sectional study, researchers are inspired to do the longitudinal study to examine the informal workplace learning and the impact of human resource management practice, leadership style. This kind of study will be helpful to test the causal relationship over a specific period.

Secondly, it is suggested that the applicability of the model can be examined from a global context by comparing it across diverse cultural perspective as the nature of private commercial banks in different countries differ in several ways. It would provide a

comprehensive picture regarding the impact of HRM practices and leadership style on informal workplace learning.

In addition to that, the study considered HRM practices and leadership styles in the framework as well as affective commitment as mediators to test their effect on informal workplace learning. Other variables which are likely to influence informal workplace learning need to be considered. In order to maintain parsimonious model this study might have ignored some important predictors of informal workplace learning. For that reason, this study recommends future researchers to expand the horizon of the current understanding of phenomena.

Moreover, researchers can expand this model to find out the effect of various organizational factors on the informal workplace learning of private commercial bank. The expansion could be in form of theoretically and contextually-driven factors that improves on what is currently known and understood. From this perspective, it will be worthwhile to consider other variables such as learning culture, work pressure in future research. Sample for this study were collected from HOD of branches of PCB's of Dhaka division only. The similar research can also be performed by getting the sample from different sectors (public commercial bank, manufacturing, trading and other service sector) separately with a view to identify whether there are any variances among the sectors. Such type of research could have supposedly yielded different results which would have been interesting to discover.

5.11 Conclusion

Researchers of developed and developing countries who work on informal workplace learning recognize its contributions towards achieving competitive advantage. Although there are some studies on determinants or factors affecting informal workplace learning, the literature is insufficient in the consideration of organizational factors that affect informal workplace learning. Based on the concept of 'the theory of situated learning' the present study intends to examine how the organizational factors affect the informal workplace learning of private commercial banks operating in Bangladesh. Organizational factors namely HRM practices and leadership styles have been used to formulate the proposed research framework in order to examine their effect on informal workplace learning of private commercial banks especially in the context of Bangladesh. In addition to that, affective commitment has been considered as the mediator to examine how do affective commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices, leadership styles and informal workplace learning.

The study applied quantitative research techniques and employed structured questionnaire as the research instrument. In order to collect data, this study adopted a cross sectional survey design and the unit of analysis was the employees working in branches of private commercial banks operating in Bangladesh and the head of the department of the different division were the respondents. The study employed multistage sampling technique in data collection. At initial stage, branches of private commercial banks were randomly selected. Secondly, final respondents were selected systematically

as there is no comprehensive list or directory of employees working in private commercial banks of Bangladesh. The total sample size of 381 was finally considered for analysis. The study applied the Partial Least Squares to Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) approach for data analysis.

The findings of the study revealed that HRM practices such as selective hiring, extensive training, performance appraisal, compensation practices, empowerment, information sharing have significant positive relationships with informal workplace learning. Therefore, the management of private commercial banks should be highly concerned about these practices in order to enhance informal workplace learning. In case of leadership style, the results showed that transformational leadership style was positively related and statistically significant with informal workplace learning.

In addition to that, the study showed the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between HRM practices, leadership styles and informal workplace learning. The result revealed that affective commitment significantly mediates relationship between certain HRM practices such as extensive training, compensation practices, promotion opportunity, empowerment, information sharing and informal workplace learning. The study also revealed that affective commitment significantly mediates the relationship between leadership styles particularly transactional leadership style and informal workplace learning.

Finally, it can be said that HRM practices, leadership style, affective commitment in this integrated model are able to give a more holistic picture. The reason is that, the more complex integrated framework provides a more complete understanding of the determinants of informal workplace learning and their interrelationships. From the result of the study, it is evident that if private commercial banks have better HRM practices, leadership style and at the same time get proper affective commitment from the employees, their informal workplace learning will be better which contribute more for achieving competitive advantages.



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APPENDICES

Appendix-A: High Performance HRM Practices Dimensions Recently Used by Different Scholars in their Empirical Studies

S. L. No	Author	Countr y	Extensive Training	Employment Security	Job design	participation	Promotion	Selective hiring	Performance appraisal	Compensation practices	Information sharing	Recognition	Employee attitude survey	Teams decision making	Reduce status distinction	Transformational leadership	Separation	Involvement	Health and safety	Empowerment	Competence development	Career management	Team working	Involve staff in decision	Grievance handling	Performance management	Flexible working hours	Job rotation
1	Mostafa et al. (2015)	Egypt	x	x	x	x	x																					
2	Nasurdi n et al (2015)	Malaysi a				x		x	x	x																		
3	Chia et al (2016)	Malaysi a	x					x		x																		
4	Lopez et al (2005)	Spain	x			x		x		x																		
5	Lopez et al (2006)	Spain	x			x		x		x																		
6	Innocenti, Pilati & Peluso (2011)	Italy	x		x				x	x	x	x	x															

[illegible]

Appendix B: Common Method Variance

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	19.905	20.521	20.521	19.905	20.521	20.521
2	3.757	3.874	24.394	3.757	3.874	24.394
3	3.358	3.461	27.856	3.358	3.461	27.856
4	3.148	3.245	31.101	3.148	3.245	31.101
5	2.792	2.879	33.980	2.792	2.879	33.980
6	2.739	2.823	36.803	2.739	2.823	36.803
7	2.433	2.508	39.311	2.433	2.508	39.311
8	2.276	2.346	41.657	2.276	2.346	41.657
9	2.140	2.207	43.864	2.140	2.207	43.864
10	1.890	1.948	45.812	1.890	1.948	45.812
11	1.786	1.841	47.653	1.786	1.841	47.653
12	1.733	1.786	49.439	1.733	1.786	49.439
13	1.611	1.661	51.100	1.611	1.661	51.100
14	1.554	1.602	52.703	1.554	1.602	52.703
15	1.491	1.537	54.240	1.491	1.537	54.240
16	1.407	1.451	55.691	1.407	1.451	55.691
17	1.326	1.367	57.058	1.326	1.367	57.058
18	1.269	1.308	58.365	1.269	1.308	58.365
19	1.236	1.274	59.639	1.236	1.274	59.639
20	1.210	1.248	60.887	1.210	1.248	60.887
21	1.141	1.176	62.063	1.141	1.176	62.063
22	1.086	1.119	63.183	1.086	1.119	63.183
23	1.070	1.103	64.285	1.070	1.103	64.285
24	1.018	1.049	65.334	1.018	1.049	65.334
25	.986	1.016	66.351			
26	.953	.982	67.333			
27	.939	.968	68.301			
28	.912	.940	69.241			
29	.878	.905	70.146			
30	.872	.899	71.045			
31	.847	.873	71.918			
32	.809	.834	72.753			
33	.789	.813	73.566			
34	.770	.794	74.360			
35	.748	.772	75.132			

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
36	.731	.753	75.885			
37	.726	.748	76.633			
38	.700	.722	77.355			
39	.695	.716	78.072			
40	.683	.704	78.776			
41	.669	.690	79.465			
42	.643	.663	80.128			
43	.621	.641	80.769			
44	.608	.627	81.396			
45	.601	.620	82.016			
46	.593	.612	82.627			
47	.574	.592	83.219			
48	.569	.586	83.805			
49	.565	.583	84.388			
50	.547	.564	84.952			
51	.530	.546	85.499			
52	.527	.544	86.042			
53	.499	.515	86.557			
54	.495	.511	87.067			
55	.488	.503	87.571			
56	.484	.499	88.069			
57	.470	.485	88.554			
58	.465	.480	89.034			
59	.440	.454	89.488			
60	.434	.448	89.936			
61	.425	.438	90.374			
62	.413	.426	90.799			
63	.412	.424	91.224			
64	.395	.408	91.631			
65	.381	.393	92.024			
66	.376	.388	92.412			
67	.358	.369	92.781			
68	.347	.358	93.139			
69	.341	.352	93.491			
70	.333	.344	93.834			
71	.325	.335	94.169			
72	.318	.328	94.497			

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
73	.301	.311	94.808			
74	.296	.305	95.113			
75	.284	.293	95.406			
76	.278	.286	95.692			
77	.268	.277	95.969			
78	.265	.274	96.242			
79	.261	.269	96.512			
80	.251	.259	96.770			
81	.245	.252	97.022			
82	.240	.247	97.270			
83	.231	.238	97.508			
84	.223	.230	97.738			
85	.219	.226	97.964			
86	.208	.214	98.178			
87	.201	.207	98.386			
88	.194	.200	98.585			
89	.183	.188	98.774			
90	.177	.183	98.957			
91	.172	.178	99.134			
92	.162	.167	99.302			
93	.151	.156	99.457			
94	.144	.148	99.606			
95	.142	.147	99.753			
96	.125	.129	99.881			
97	.115	.119	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix C: Construct Correlations

		SH	ET	PA	CP	ES	PO	EP	IS	IDI	IM	INTST	IC	CR	AME	PME	AC	LWO	SE	EXTS
SH	Pearson Correlation	1																		
	Sig. (2-tailed)																			
	N	381																		
ET	Pearson Correlation	.440**	1																	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000																		
	N	381	381																	
PA	Pearson Correlation	.218**	.197**	1																
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000																	
	N	381	381	381																
CP	Pearson Correlation	.362**	.486**	.190**	1															
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000																
	N	381	381	381	381															
ES	Pearson Correlation	.061	.121*	.051	.007	1														
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.233	.018	.323	.885															
	N	381	381	381	381	381														
PO	Pearson Correlation	.303**	.344**	.103*	.437**	.108*	1													
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.044	.000	.035														
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381													
EP	Pearson Correlation	.396**	.472**	.124*	.439**	.063	.423**	1												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.015	.000	.219	.000													
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381												
IS	Pearson Correlation	.362**	.392**	.096	.422**	-.002	.311**	.573**	1											

		SH	ET	PA	CP	ES	PO	EP	IS	IDI	IM	INTST	IC	CR	AME	PME	AC	LWO	SE	EXTS
IDI	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.061	.000	.965	.000	.000												
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381											
	Pearson Correlation	.378**	.407**	.185**	.425**	.060	.304**	.427**	.486**	1										
IM	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.243	.000	.000	.000											
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381										
	Pearson Correlation	.399**	.424**	.225**	.435**	.027	.351**	.447**	.524**	.677**	1									
INTST	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.600	.000	.000	.000	.000										
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381									
	Pearson Correlation	.338**	.369**	.170**	.330**	.102	.221**	.329**	.394**	.604**	.528**	1								
IC	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.000	.047	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000									
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381								
	Pearson Correlation	.329**	.391**	.157**	.391**	.098	.284**	.409**	.409**	.603**	.590**	.549**	1							
CR	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002	.000	.057	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000								
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381							
	Pearson Correlation	.400**	.359**	.138**	.397**	.010	.326**	.405**	.473**	.561**	.605**	.548**	.561**	1						
AME	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.007	.000	.840	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000							
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381						
	Pearson Correlation	.272**	.386**	.093	.377**	-.018	.277**	.336**	.442**	.427**	.486**	.512**	.462**	.635**	1					
PME	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.069	.000	.724	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000						
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381					
	Pearson Correlation	-.166**	.213**	-.075	.168**	.104	-.079	-.154**	-.155**	-.242**	.170**	-.225**	-.127*	-.119*	-.159**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.143	.001	.043	.125	.003	.002	.000	.001	.000	.013	.020	.002					
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381				

		SH	ET	PA	CP	ES	PO	EP	IS	IDI	IM	INTST	IC	CR	AME	PME	AC	LWO	SE	EXTS
AC	Pearson Correlation	.341**	.478**	.165**	.451**	.070	.397**	.457**	.433**	.347**	.482**	.313**	.405**	.444**	.391**	-.149**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.000	.175	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004				
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381			
LWO	Pearson Correlation	.493**	.403**	.248**	.371**	.040	.256**	.486**	.476**	.424**	.424**	.347**	.312**	.321**	.322**	-.247**	.327**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.432	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381		
SE	Pearson Correlation	.300**	.329**	.162**	.373**	.037	.245**	.260**	.326**	.303**	.319**	.329**	.287**	.238**	.288**	-.062	.285**	.395**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002	.000	.474	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.231	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	
EXTS	Pearson Correlation	.339**	.375**	.103*	.355**	.012	.220**	.317**	.276**	.312**	.239**	.302**	.294**	.260**	.255**	-.081	.169**	.377**	.405**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.044	.000	.822	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.116	.001	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix D: Item Correlations

Selective Hiring

		SH1	SH2	SH3	SH4	SH5
SH1	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	381				
SH2	Pearson Correlation	.213**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	381	381			
SH3	Pearson Correlation	.281**	.370**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381		
SH4	Pearson Correlation	.365**	.380**	.502**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	
SH5	Pearson Correlation	.165**	.400**	.348**	.437**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Extensive Training

		ET1	ET2	ET3	ET4	ET5
ET1	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	381				
ET2	Pearson Correlation	.202**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	381	381			
ET3	Pearson Correlation	.365**	.378**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381		
ET4	Pearson Correlation	.285**	.321**	.517**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	
ET5	Pearson Correlation	.294**	.242**	.379**	.405**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Performance Appraisal

		PA1	PA2	PA3	PA4	PA5	PA6
PA1	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	381					
PA2	Pearson Correlation	.229**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	381	381				
PA3	Pearson Correlation	.361**	.368**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000				
	N	381	381	381			
PA4	Pearson Correlation	.466**	.309**	.437**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381	381		
PA5	Pearson Correlation	.334**	.236**	.348**	.511**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	381	
PA6	Pearson Correlation	.314**	.240**	.265**	.396**	.505**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Compensation Practices

		CP1	CP2	CP3	CP4	CP5	CP6
CP1	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	381					
CP2	Pearson Correlation	.487**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	381	381				
CP3	Pearson Correlation	.540**	.497**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000				
	N	381	381	381			
CP4	Pearson Correlation	.496**	.389**	.487**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381	381		
CP5	Pearson Correlation	.515**	.422**	.486**	.701**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	381	
CP6	Pearson Correlation	.537**	.377**	.449**	.473**	.570**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Employment Security

		ES1	ES2	ES3	ES4	ES5
ES1	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	381				
ES2	Pearson Correlation	.555**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	381	381			
ES3	Pearson Correlation	.261**	.319**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381		
ES4	Pearson Correlation	.403**	.396**	.400**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	
ES5	Pearson Correlation	.387**	.311**	.130*	.438**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.011	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Promotion Opportunity

		PO1	PO2	PO3	PO4
PO1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
PO2	Pearson Correlation	.314**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
PO3	Pearson Correlation	.306**	.289**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
PO4	Pearson Correlation	.076	.123*	.090	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.139	.017	.079	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Empowerment

		EP1	EP2	EP3	EP4	EP5
EP1	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	381				
EP2	Pearson Correlation	.378**	1			

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000								
	N	381	381							
EP3	Pearson Correlation	.409**	.296**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000							
	N	381	381	381						
EP4	Pearson Correlation	.447**	.333**	.417**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000						
	N	381	381	381	381					
EP5	Pearson Correlation	.379**	.354**	.367**	.397**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000					
	N	381	381	381	381	381				

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Information Sharing

		IS1	IS2	IS3	IS4	IS5	IS6	IS7	IS8	IS9
IS1	Pearson Correlation	1								
	Sig. (2-tailed)									
	N	381								
IS2	Pearson Correlation	.627**	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000								
	N	381	381							
IS3	Pearson Correlation	.349**	.589**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000							
	N	381	381	381						
IS4	Pearson Correlation	.485**	.565**	.603**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000						
	N	381	381	381	381					
IS5	Pearson Correlation	.389**	.382**	.478**	.475**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000					
	N	381	381	381	381	381				
IS6	Pearson Correlation	.235**	.240**	.242**	.232**	.466**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381			
IS7	Pearson Correlation	.416**	.423**	.396**	.427**	.398**	.251**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381		
IS8	Pearson Correlation	.157**	.198**	.250**	.191**	.389**	.547**	.229**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	
IS9	Pearson Correlation	.327**	.415**	.415**	.460**	.476**	.253**	.531**	.256**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Idealized Influence

		IDI1	IDI2	IDI3	IDI4	IDI5	IDI6	IDI7	IDI8
IDI1	Pearson Correlation	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)								
	N	381							
IDI2	Pearson Correlation	.557**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000							
	N	381	381						
IDI3	Pearson Correlation	.550**	.473**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000						
	N	381	381	381					
IDI4	Pearson Correlation	.414**	.428**	.604**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000					
	N	381	381	381	381				
IDI5	Pearson Correlation	.462**	.568**	.523**	.601**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	N	381	381	381	381	381			
IDI6	Pearson Correlation	.437**	.495**	.524**	.573**	.633**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381		
IDI7	Pearson Correlation	.363**	.357**	.359**	.403**	.391**	.365**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	
IDI8	Pearson Correlation	.478**	.418**	.518**	.470**	.516**	.487**	.448**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Inspirational Motivation

		IM1	IM2	IM3	IM4
IM1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
IM2	Pearson Correlation	.308**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
IM3	Pearson Correlation	.488**	.289**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
IM4	Pearson Correlation	.466**	.347**	.535**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Intellectual Stimulation

		INTST1	INTST2	INTST3	INTST4
INTST1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
INTST2	Pearson Correlation	.557**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
INTST3	Pearson Correlation	.444**	.469**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
INTST4	Pearson Correlation	.457**	.498**	.445**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Individualized Consideration

		IC1	IC2	IC3	IC4
IC1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
IC2	Pearson Correlation	.356**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
IC3	Pearson Correlation	.372**	.342**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
IC4	Pearson Correlation	.422**	.297**	.402**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Contingent Reward

		CR1	CR2	CR3	CR4
CR1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
CR2	Pearson Correlation	.559**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		

CR3	Pearson Correlation	.539**	.580**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
CR4	Pearson Correlation	.492**	.440**	.487**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Active Management-by-Exception

		AME1	AME2	AME3	AME4
AME1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
AME2	Pearson Correlation	.546**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
AME3	Pearson Correlation	.452**	.601**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
AME4	Pearson Correlation	.477**	.498**	.598**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Passive Management-by-Exception

		PME1	PME2	PME3	PME4
PME1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
PME2	Pearson Correlation	.532**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
PME3	Pearson Correlation	.364**	.466**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
PME4	Pearson Correlation	.502**	.633**	.511**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Affective Commitment

		AC1	AC2	AC3	AC4	AC5	AC6	AC7	AC8
AC1	Pearson Correlation	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)								
	N	381							
AC2	Pearson Correlation	.400**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000							
	N	381	381						
AC3	Pearson Correlation	.305**	.387**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000						
	N	381	381	381					
AC4	Pearson Correlation	.369**	.138**	.293**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.007	.000					
	N	381	381	381	381				
AC5	Pearson Correlation	.337**	.365**	.514**	.272**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	N	381	381	381	381	381			
AC6	Pearson Correlation	.308**	.306**	.470**	.215**	.376**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381		
AC7	Pearson Correlation	.349**	.411**	.426**	.183**	.453**	.492**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	
AC8	Pearson Correlation	.451**	.419**	.462**	.253**	.551**	.449**	.524**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Learning with Others

		LWO1	LWO2	LWO3	LWO4
LWO1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
LWO2	Pearson Correlation	.364**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
LWO3	Pearson Correlation	.327**	.287**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
LWO4	Pearson Correlation	.465**	.320**	.304**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Self Experimentation

		SE1	SE2	SE3	SE4
SE1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
SE2	Pearson Correlation	.373**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
SE3	Pearson Correlation	.233**	.197**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
SE4	Pearson Correlation	.186**	.076	.166**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.137	.001	
	N	381	381	381	381

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

External Scanning

		EXTS1	EXTS2	EXTS3	EXTS4
EXTS1	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	381			
EXTS2	Pearson Correlation	.298**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	381	381		
EXTS3	Pearson Correlation	.320**	.373**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	381	381	381	
EXTS4	Pearson Correlation	.190**	.260**	.229**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	381	381	381	381

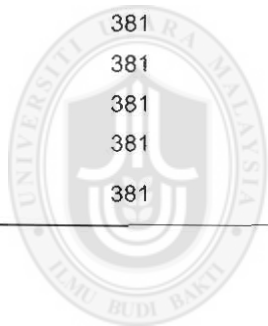
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix E: Descriptive Statistics of 97 Items

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SH1	381	1	5	4.43	.717
SH2	381	1	5	3.82	.996
SH3	381	1	5	4.30	.737
SH4	381	1	5	4.31	.735
SH5	381	1	5	4.13	.790
ET1	381	1	5	3.77	1.105
ET2	381	1	5	4.04	.804
ET3	381	2	5	4.41	.661
ET4	381	2	5	4.30	.712
ET5	381	1	5	4.09	.809
PA1	381	1	5	4.21	.728
PA2	381	1	5	4.05	.745
PA3	381	1	5	4.14	.762
PA4	381	1	5	4.26	.770
PA5	381	1	5	4.31	.664
PA6	381	1	5	4.13	.747
CP1	381	1	5	3.66	.846
CP2	381	1	5	3.75	.843
CP3	381	1	5	3.47	.863
CP4	381	1	5	3.63	1.034
CP5	381	1	5	3.80	.991
CP6	381	1	5	3.71	.788
ES1	381	1	5	3.74	.961
ES2	381	1	5	3.41	.907
ES3	381	1	5	4.09	.751
ES4	381	1	5	3.86	.848
ES5	381	1	5	3.67	.835
PO1	381	2	5	4.00	.667
PO2	381	2	5	3.88	.664
PO3	381	2	5	3.72	.693
PO4	381	2	5	3.84	.772
EP1	381	2	5	4.07	.724
EP2	381	3	5	4.56	.528
EP3	381	2	5	4.24	.903
EP4	381	1	5	3.85	.814
EP5	381	1	5	4.05	.821
IS1	381	1	5	3.98	.937
IS2	381	2	5	4.17	.704

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
IS3	381	2	5	4.33	.641
IS4	381	1	5	4.17	.708
IS5	381	1	5	4.19	.760
IS6	381	2	5	3.84	.821
IS7	381	2	5	4.11	.802
IS8	381	1	5	3.56	.830
IS9	381	1	5	4.39	.723
IDI1	381	2	5	4.14	.757
IDI2	381	1	5	4.03	.891
IDI3	381	1	5	4.13	.790
IDI4	381	1	5	4.01	.946
IDI5	381	1	5	4.15	.799
IDI6	381	2	5	4.19	.741
IDI7	381	2	5	4.17	.730
IDI8	381	2	5	4.17	.744
IM1	381	1	5	4.19	.737
IM2	381	1	5	3.86	.844
IM3	381	2	5	4.12	.809
IM4	381	2	5	4.17	.751
INTST1	381	2	5	4.13	.785
INTST2	381	1	5	4.04	.846
INTST3	381	2	5	3.92	.786
INTST4	381	1	5	3.97	.834
IC1	381	1	5	3.67	.929
IC2	381	1	5	3.59	.965
IC3	381	2	5	4.02	.774
IC4	381	2	5	4.19	.731
CR1	381	2	5	4.09	.793
CR2	381	2	5	4.04	.823
CR3	381	1	5	3.75	.896
CR4	381	1	5	4.17	.819
AME1	381	1	5	3.83	.871
AME2	381	1	5	3.95	.895
AME3	381	1	5	4.02	.804
AME4	381	2	5	4.04	.797
PME1	381	1	5	2.93	.999
PME2	381	1	5	2.83	1.068
PME3	381	1	5	3.20	.921
PME4	381	1	5	3.18	1.124
AC1	381	1	5	3.72	.953

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AC2	381	1	5	4.17	.830
AC3	381	1	5	4.21	.829
AC4	381	1	5	3.21	1.083
AC5	381	1	5	4.29	.784
AC6	381	1	5	4.04	.840
AC7	381	1	5	4.32	.717
AC8	381	1	5	4.37	.709
LWO1	381	1	5	4.40	.742
LWO2	381	1	5	4.26	.850
LWO3	381	1	5	4.33	.688
LWO4	381	1	5	4.43	.695
SE1	381	1	5	4.24	.708
SE2	381	1	5	3.78	.942
SE3	381	1	5	4.08	.724
SE4	381	1	5	4.04	.758
EXTS1	381	1	5	3.95	.896
EXTS2	381	1	5	3.46	.969
EXTS3	381	1	5	3.88	.789
EXTS4	381	1	5	4.20	.889
Valid N (listwise)	381				



Universiti Utara Malaysia

Appendix F: Cross Loadings

	AC	AME	CP	CR	EP	ES	ET	EXTS	IC	IDI	IM	INTS	IS	LWO	PA	PME	PO	SE	SH
AC1	0.605	0.249	0.348	0.270	0.322	0.073	0.261	0.132	0.240	0.226	0.307	0.213	0.281	0.147	0.120	-0.115	0.269	0.080	0.159
AC2	0.690	0.358	0.423	0.352	0.427	0.124	0.403	0.260	0.277	0.305	0.343	0.358	0.407	0.401	0.178	-0.233	0.248	0.207	0.335
AC3	0.710	0.233	0.346	0.346	0.305	0.189	0.396	0.101	0.299	0.211	0.298	0.211	0.277	0.244	0.131	-0.167	0.305	0.162	0.356
AC5	0.711	0.279	0.304	0.339	0.312	0.136	0.330	0.135	0.274	0.271	0.367	0.203	0.250	0.209	0.136	-0.053	0.282	0.151	0.326
AC6	0.675	0.246	0.196	0.277	0.265	0.070	0.328	0.155	0.272	0.256	0.341	0.197	0.283	0.310	0.119	-0.122	0.232	0.206	0.293
AC7	0.771	0.413	0.424	0.417	0.496	0.119	0.457	0.243	0.328	0.409	0.467	0.362	0.428	0.407	0.126	-0.183	0.365	0.222	0.375
AC8	0.775	0.318	0.336	0.372	0.351	0.119	0.315	0.151	0.257	0.303	0.407	0.223	0.385	0.259	0.105	-0.102	0.315	0.199	0.318
AME1	0.382	0.758	0.344	0.472	0.267	0.074	0.354	0.242	0.335	0.358	0.387	0.386	0.390	0.295	0.160	-0.141	0.235	0.216	0.264
AME2	0.318	0.820	0.329	0.481	0.232	0.053	0.260	0.200	0.328	0.284	0.321	0.381	0.296	0.217	0.052	-0.138	0.184	0.149	0.183
AME3	0.375	0.833	0.279	0.575	0.307	0.071	0.252	0.225	0.361	0.323	0.338	0.447	0.384	0.281	0.039	-0.114	0.230	0.156	0.246
AME4	0.327	0.803	0.275	0.538	0.291	0.064	0.312	0.178	0.419	0.425	0.477	0.446	0.322	0.255	0.111	-0.136	0.163	0.119	0.316
CP1	0.285	0.294	0.751	0.241	0.252	0.098	0.314	0.256	0.179	0.241	0.237	0.231	0.235	0.251	0.128	-0.086	0.268	0.237	0.270
CP2	0.332	0.247	0.675	0.271	0.316	0.098	0.306	0.273	0.262	0.293	0.250	0.194	0.281	0.297	0.151	-0.157	0.294	0.187	0.326
CP3	0.331	0.255	0.741	0.296	0.388	0.121	0.344	0.255	0.274	0.338	0.278	0.231	0.326	0.268	0.157	-0.095	0.343	0.273	0.319
CP4	0.460	0.305	0.818	0.294	0.369	0.116	0.406	0.301	0.321	0.366	0.373	0.302	0.340	0.338	0.140	-0.185	0.356	0.202	0.325
CP5	0.477	0.389	0.846	0.407	0.401	0.026	0.447	0.303	0.328	0.408	0.415	0.343	0.394	0.296	0.137	-0.155	0.375	0.269	0.368
CP6	0.263	0.195	0.714	0.286	0.248	0.010	0.263	0.184	0.211	0.288	0.327	0.181	0.240	0.216	0.112	-0.098	0.230	0.214	0.235
CR1	0.402	0.548	0.324	0.817	0.363	0.102	0.283	0.322	0.550	0.516	0.503	0.524	0.362	0.246	0.074	-0.090	0.262	0.090	0.303
CR2	0.398	0.561	0.310	0.818	0.401	0.123	0.285	0.223	0.427	0.434	0.512	0.483	0.377	0.265	0.085	-0.172	0.294	0.088	0.392

	AC	AME	CP	CR	EP	ES	ET	EXTS	IC	IDI	IM	INTS	IS	LWO	PA	PME	PO	SE	SH
CR3	0.344	0.427	0.333	0.807	0.253	0.028	0.240	0.137	0.429	0.463	0.537	0.387	0.297	0.159	0.166	-0.058	0.219	0.141	0.323
CR4	0.407	0.512	0.315	0.750	0.308	0.095	0.270	0.161	0.365	0.375	0.438	0.368	0.416	0.353	0.087	-0.084	0.289	0.235	0.335
EP1	0.366	0.257	0.356	0.299	0.738	0.218	0.322	0.302	0.247	0.263	0.280	0.270	0.357	0.341	0.111	-0.119	0.318	0.181	0.385
EP2	0.328	0.227	0.222	0.335	0.646	0.118	0.323	0.215	0.245	0.345	0.388	0.181	0.329	0.289	0.094	-0.070	0.296	0.188	0.304
EP3	0.414	0.282	0.362	0.278	0.728	0.102	0.369	0.348	0.299	0.315	0.291	0.250	0.422	0.460	0.133	-0.132	0.286	0.112	0.311
EP4	0.337	0.180	0.307	0.214	0.721	0.158	0.350	0.292	0.219	0.268	0.254	0.221	0.397	0.341	0.046	-0.126	0.287	0.191	0.222
EP5	0.369	0.254	0.308	0.358	0.707	0.157	0.312	0.229	0.293	0.346	0.286	0.236	0.492	0.270	0.081	-0.097	0.322	0.122	0.272
ES3	0.061	0.041	0.062	0.080	0.125	0.630	0.103	0.046	0.136	0.128	0.155	0.203	0.065	0.094	0.108	-0.150	0.150	0.148	0.087
ES4	0.178	0.082	0.096	0.104	0.207	0.964	0.207	0.065	0.168	0.157	0.162	0.197	0.083	0.188	0.127	-0.179	0.234	0.083	0.207
ET1	0.340	0.253	0.263	0.229	0.373	0.157	0.646	0.333	0.259	0.316	0.307	0.250	0.273	0.359	0.186	-0.252	0.200	0.161	0.328
ET3	0.435	0.228	0.380	0.256	0.338	0.146	0.807	0.219	0.216	0.284	0.299	0.246	0.317	0.321	0.142	-0.147	0.272	0.219	0.373
ET4	0.372	0.304	0.347	0.302	0.374	0.109	0.762	0.200	0.286	0.257	0.314	0.213	0.302	0.296	0.133	-0.060	0.262	0.261	0.335
ET5	0.344	0.289	0.372	0.199	0.304	0.197	0.695	0.188	0.287	0.266	0.243	0.301	0.294	0.229	0.115	-0.121	0.282	0.247	0.320
EXTS2	0.109	0.149	0.184	0.139	0.199	0.019	0.189	0.712	0.126	0.166	0.114	0.130	0.158	0.193	0.058	-0.014	0.082	0.280	0.153
EXTS3	0.080	0.122	0.226	0.207	0.145	0.023	0.149	0.671	0.207	0.220	0.124	0.248	0.120	0.197	0.043	-0.068	0.099	0.202	0.193
EXTS4	0.300	0.264	0.325	0.227	0.444	0.119	0.316	0.773	0.294	0.343	0.265	0.293	0.420	0.501	0.121	-0.143	0.246	0.225	0.297
IC1	0.309	0.387	0.288	0.401	0.247	0.185	0.281	0.268	0.794	0.465	0.409	0.423	0.242	0.220	0.104	-0.129	0.252	0.227	0.296
IC2	0.249	0.206	0.235	0.329	0.240	0.133	0.258	0.084	0.642	0.323	0.284	0.253	0.231	0.178	0.143	0.027	0.154	0.196	0.198
IC4	0.330	0.390	0.282	0.506	0.342	0.104	0.270	0.288	0.816	0.518	0.532	0.545	0.280	0.238	0.108	-0.177	0.214	0.128	0.269
IDI1	0.319	0.326	0.312	0.474	0.371	0.128	0.276	0.195	0.430	0.718	0.505	0.403	0.425	0.376	0.063	-0.164	0.205	0.141	0.318

	AC	AME	CP	CR	EP	ES	ET	EXTS	IC	IDI	IM	INTS	IS	LWO	PA	PME	PO	SE	SH
IDI2	0.287	0.250	0.259	0.450	0.331	0.114	0.240	0.231	0.458	0.726	0.543	0.385	0.318	0.241	0.075	-0.070	0.261	0.104	0.264
IDI3	0.422	0.360	0.372	0.431	0.381	0.101	0.391	0.300	0.454	0.779	0.592	0.489	0.380	0.372	0.116	-0.213	0.266	0.186	0.362
IDI4	0.266	0.356	0.341	0.423	0.284	0.156	0.284	0.313	0.502	0.769	0.515	0.519	0.365	0.305	0.185	-0.250	0.213	0.176	0.281
IDI5	0.290	0.363	0.327	0.428	0.317	0.092	0.254	0.236	0.444	0.801	0.544	0.468	0.296	0.213	0.158	-0.170	0.259	0.104	0.272
IDI6	0.318	0.342	0.335	0.391	0.352	0.129	0.283	0.269	0.403	0.770	0.520	0.478	0.355	0.334	0.134	-0.211	0.237	0.192	0.334
IDI7	0.225	0.190	0.245	0.308	0.212	0.173	0.223	0.238	0.371	0.605	0.454	0.396	0.265	0.347	0.129	-0.170	0.248	0.292	0.263
IDI8	0.291	0.345	0.363	0.404	0.306	0.126	0.301	0.288	0.419	0.732	0.536	0.432	0.412	0.338	0.098	-0.207	0.281	0.154	0.274
IM1	0.385	0.332	0.305	0.478	0.295	0.130	0.291	0.174	0.429	0.571	0.788	0.376	0.341	0.301	0.139	-0.166	0.294	0.160	0.399
IM3	0.483	0.442	0.411	0.539	0.376	0.162	0.359	0.249	0.469	0.620	0.839	0.490	0.399	0.321	0.140	-0.161	0.341	0.200	0.374
IM4	0.392	0.376	0.312	0.505	0.354	0.153	0.321	0.179	0.467	0.549	0.817	0.473	0.391	0.320	0.217	-0.134	0.258	0.217	0.321
INTST1	0.249	0.408	0.214	0.438	0.210	0.136	0.229	0.251	0.403	0.465	0.423	0.785	0.347	0.291	0.144	-0.195	0.170	0.228	0.254
INTST2	0.294	0.397	0.268	0.400	0.293	0.186	0.263	0.261	0.397	0.481	0.433	0.810	0.334	0.273	0.111	-0.143	0.158	0.200	0.240
INTST3	0.235	0.311	0.244	0.407	0.238	0.139	0.228	0.219	0.451	0.418	0.380	0.742	0.204	0.222	0.153	-0.114	0.194	0.242	0.250
INTST4	0.372	0.486	0.320	0.483	0.281	0.237	0.341	0.259	0.500	0.519	0.473	0.782	0.326	0.283	0.089	-0.263	0.226	0.168	0.325
IS1	0.375	0.291	0.385	0.306	0.517	0.068	0.318	0.283	0.217	0.370	0.344	0.295	0.710	0.354	0.071	-0.201	0.258	0.079	0.288
IS2	0.362	0.353	0.323	0.336	0.444	0.098	0.340	0.280	0.272	0.305	0.309	0.319	0.787	0.392	0.098	-0.135	0.247	0.245	0.309
IS3	0.345	0.324	0.214	0.440	0.358	0.046	0.239	0.211	0.308	0.355	0.368	0.315	0.747	0.281	0.062	-0.091	0.209	0.179	0.270
IS4	0.361	0.304	0.305	0.317	0.398	0.087	0.316	0.237	0.271	0.358	0.330	0.279	0.788	0.378	0.019	-0.109	0.250	0.156	0.329
IS5	0.351	0.261	0.237	0.350	0.437	0.099	0.247	0.195	0.240	0.350	0.400	0.259	0.702	0.307	0.078	-0.087	0.167	0.208	0.292
IS7	0.300	0.346	0.316	0.282	0.360	0.001	0.306	0.322	0.228	0.367	0.315	0.273	0.685	0.395	0.000	-0.192	0.140	0.124	0.231

	AC	AME	CP	CR	EP	ES	ET	EXTS	IC	IDI	IM	INTS	IS	LWO	PA	PME	PO	SE	SH
IS9	0.358	0.343	0.312	0.302	0.375	0.050	0.316	0.294	0.171	0.343	0.308	0.260	0.705	0.418	0.051	-0.125	0.239	0.234	0.275
LWO1	0.397	0.308	0.307	0.236	0.416	0.131	0.409	0.332	0.209	0.376	0.329	0.261	0.358	0.778	0.144	-0.166	0.236	0.321	0.410
LWO2	0.284	0.216	0.304	0.225	0.290	0.105	0.229	0.364	0.180	0.298	0.268	0.263	0.310	0.681	0.192	-0.224	0.110	0.201	0.339
LWO3	0.249	0.183	0.213	0.269	0.409	0.139	0.225	0.279	0.209	0.267	0.262	0.263	0.465	0.640	0.231	-0.197	0.210	0.214	0.262
LWO4	0.255	0.212	0.232	0.197	0.279	0.158	0.296	0.297	0.214	0.267	0.241	0.201	0.292	0.748	0.150	-0.135	0.178	0.341	0.343
PA1	0.132	0.069	0.132	0.035	0.111	0.088	0.122	0.066	0.048	0.025	0.117	0.042	0.012	0.104	0.699	-0.007	0.021	0.151	0.118
PA3	0.142	0.092	0.150	0.106	0.141	0.135	0.173	0.106	0.149	0.100	0.154	0.115	0.074	0.155	0.695	-0.050	0.151	0.091	0.167
PA4	0.168	0.114	0.127	0.107	0.163	0.116	0.149	0.092	0.124	0.156	0.171	0.135	0.089	0.228	0.821	-0.057	0.083	0.166	0.164
PA5	0.109	0.068	0.136	0.088	0.054	0.061	0.204	0.077	0.106	0.157	0.136	0.118	0.072	0.239	0.719	-0.050	0.030	0.191	0.174
PA6	0.101	0.031	0.102	0.127	-0.049	0.085	0.045	0.046	0.112	0.158	0.144	0.170	0.007	0.157	0.639	-0.071	0.006	0.102	0.089
PME1	-0.127	-0.110	-0.130	-0.136	-0.144	-0.161	-0.107	-0.083	-0.117	-0.228	-0.142	-0.193	-0.156	-0.251	-0.056	0.768	-0.069	-0.022	-0.117
PME2	-0.215	-0.139	-0.160	-0.102	-0.120	-0.131	-0.204	-0.077	-0.102	-0.169	-0.154	-0.206	-0.159	-0.210	-0.030	0.847	-0.084	0.009	-0.153
PME3	-0.103	-0.057	-0.070	-0.022	-0.078	-0.125	-0.071	-0.099	-0.104	-0.137	-0.121	-0.108	-0.030	-0.077	-0.036	0.674	-0.056	-0.052	-0.038
PME4	-0.186	-0.183	-0.176	-0.121	-0.137	-0.193	-0.203	-0.108	-0.132	-0.232	-0.173	-0.207	-0.189	-0.214	-0.075	0.861	-0.070	-0.053	-0.206
PO1	0.316	0.188	0.348	0.303	0.277	0.135	0.280	0.146	0.239	0.222	0.248	0.149	0.159	0.203	0.023	-0.010	0.760	0.217	0.268
PO2	0.357	0.246	0.343	0.283	0.357	0.200	0.264	0.171	0.216	0.298	0.332	0.245	0.282	0.174	0.094	-0.105	0.799	0.145	0.251
PO3	0.187	0.073	0.185	0.090	0.302	0.214	0.212	0.158	0.130	0.192	0.198	0.101	0.210	0.205	0.079	-0.087	0.605	0.111	0.148
SE1	0.195	0.149	0.223	0.135	0.166	0.117	0.241	0.220	0.188	0.149	0.198	0.237	0.227	0.356	0.205	-0.057	0.151	0.788	0.248
SE2	0.124	0.160	0.159	0.110	0.154	0.068	0.197	0.177	0.160	0.185	0.167	0.140	0.104	0.198	0.118	0.036	0.138	0.688	0.205
SE3	0.222	0.117	0.258	0.119	0.154	0.052	0.210	0.296	0.153	0.154	0.140	0.184	0.168	0.246	0.082	-0.040	0.185	0.665	0.196

	AC	AME	CP	CR	EP	ES	ET	EXTS	IC	IDI	IM	INTS	IS	LWO	PA	PME	PO	SE	SH
SH2	0.407	0.199	0.351	0.326	0.347	0.177	0.391	0.151	0.256	0.306	0.370	0.232	0.310	0.303	0.127	-0.120	0.264	0.240	0.780
SH3	0.177	0.194	0.149	0.256	0.228	0.208	0.202	0.147	0.199	0.182	0.205	0.208	0.226	0.325	0.120	-0.122	0.162	0.152	0.649
SH4	0.324	0.254	0.268	0.313	0.336	0.130	0.381	0.315	0.281	0.282	0.304	0.299	0.293	0.447	0.169	-0.160	0.208	0.224	0.764
SH5	0.342	0.284	0.376	0.348	0.312	0.110	0.347	0.293	0.262	0.374	0.392	0.276	0.309	0.360	0.179	-0.125	0.272	0.257	0.754

Note: SH = Selective hiring, ET = Extensive training, PA = Performance appraisal, CP = Compensation practice, ES = Employment security, PO =Promotion opportunity, EP = Empowerment, IS = Information sharing, IDI = Idealized influence, IM = Inspirational motivation, INTST = Intellectual stimulation, IC= individualized consideration, CR= Contingent reward, AME=Active management-by-exception, PME= Passive management-by-exception, AC= Affective commitment, LWO=Learning with others, SE=Self-experimentation, and EXTS = External scanning .



UUM
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Appendix G: Research Questionnaire

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondents,

As a PhD student of Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), I am seeking your kind help and cooperation regarding the research on workplace learning in Private Commercial Banks of Bangladesh. This is an academic research to examine the relationship between HRM practices, leadership style and workplace learning with mediating effect of affective commitment. It would be highly appreciated if you kindly and sincerely fill-up this questionnaire with honesty and utmost care. Your valuable answer will help me to derive some accurate results which will ultimately reflect true picture of the research objectives.

The questionnaire consists of five sections. It is my earnest request to go through the every question to answer properly. It is important to note that, the study will not mention your name and information you provided and it will solely use for the research purpose with higher level confidentiality.

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate in this survey.

Sincerely,

Md. Shariful Alam Khandakar
PhD student (99066)
School of Business Management
College of Business (COB)
Universiti Utara Malaysia
Sintok, Kedah
Phone: 01613300383
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Section A Informal Workplace Learning

This section presents the workplace learning. Please read each of the descriptive statement carefully and put tick [√] in appropriate box based on your agreement or disagreement on workplace learning of your branch. Based on 5 point scale provided below, please tick the appropriate number.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I involve in informal one-to-one discussion with manager about some work situation.					
2	I involve in exchange my idea on how to solve a problem situation with peers during a break or lunch period.					
3	I involve in observation of how other employees in my bank dealt with a challenging work situation.					
4	I involve in collaboration with others who shared the need to solve a particular problem					
5	I spend time to review how I deal with a challenging work situation.					
6	I try to solve a challenging work situation through trial and error process by myself.					
7	I spend time to review what I had learned in a classroom / training program and apply that information to a challenging work situation.					
8	I read a standard operations manual or other similar texts to find an answer to a question.					
9	I search the internet for more information to solve a challenging work situation.					
10	I attend at a non-mandatory professional conference or seminar that might provide useful information.					
11	I read professional magazines or vender publications to be current in some topic.					
12	I have contact with someone outside the bank who is able to support in dealing with a challenging work situation.					

Section B

Human Resource Management Practices

Listed below provided a series of statement that produce possible perceptions that an individual might have regarding Human Resource Management practices of the organization for which they serve. Based on your own perceptions about the organization you are currently work for, please indicate the extend you agree or disagree with each statement. Based on 5 point scale given below, please tick the appropriate number.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	Getting job in this bank was not certainly easy.					
2	Only the best is hired to work in my bank.					
3	To get my job, I had to go through an extensive hiring process.					
4	When new employees are hired, they must go through an extensive hiring process in which they are interviewed a number of times.					
5	My bank pays a great deal of attention to the hiring of new employees.					
6	My bank provides education and training programs that are not directly related to my current positions.					
7	My bank encourages continuing education plans.					
8	My bank provides a wide variety of training programs.					
9	My bank provides extensive training programs for employees in this job.					
10	Employees' in this job will normally go through training programs every few years.					
11	My bank provides performance appraisals feedback for my personal development.					
12	In my bank, performance appraisals are based on multiple sources (self, coworkers, supervisors, customers, etc.).					
13	Performance appraisals in my bank are based on objective, quantifiable results.					
14	In my bank, managers get together with employees to set					

	our personal goals.					
15	The most important work guideline in my bank is to satisfy customers.					
16	Meeting customers' needs is emphasized in performance appraisal.					
17	My bank has attractive compensation system.					
18	My bank provides compensation package which is internally equitable.					
19	My bank provides compensation package which is externally equitable.					
20	My bank provides compensation package that reflects my performance.					
21	My bank provides compensation package that encourages me for better performance.					
22	My bank provides compensation package that reflects the standard of living.					
23	I have work in my bank for as long as I want it.					
24	If I were to lose my current position, my bank would try very hard to place me in another position elsewhere in the bank.					
25	I can be sure of being employed in my bank as long as I do good work.					
26	This bank provides me with retirement security.					
27	I am sure how long I will be employed by my bank.					
28	I have good opportunities of being promoted within this bank.					
29	My bank use fair promotion process for all employees.					
30	Employees who desire promotion in this bank have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.					
31	Qualified employees' in this job have the opportunity to be promoted to positions of greater pay and responsibility within the bank.					
32	I can decide how to get my job done.					
33	I am confident about my ability to do my job.					
34	The content of my job varies frequently.					
35	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.					

36	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.					
37	I am regularly informed of future corporate projects (e.g., major investment, acquisitions, new technologies).					
38	I am regularly informed of financial results.					
39	I am regularly informed of my branch performance.					
40	I am regularly informed of technological orientations.					
41	Managers regularly inform employees of the level of customer satisfaction for products or services offered.					
42	Employees' suggestions concerning ways to improve our branch effectiveness are seriously taken into account.					
43	Employees are regularly informed of the criteria that will be included in their performance evaluation.					
44	Employees' suggestions are followed up.					
45	Employees are regularly informed of new products and / services.					

Section C Leadership Style

This section provides a series of statements that represent possible perceptions that individual might have about the leadership style with whom they work. Based on your own perceptions about the leadership style you are currently working with, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement. Based on 5 point scale given below, please tick the appropriate number.

Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	My manager talks about his /her most important values and beliefs.					
2	My manager makes me feel proud for being associated with him/her.					
3	My manager specifies the importance of having a clear sense of direction.					

4	My manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the team.					
5	My manager acts in ways that make me respect him/her.					
6	My manager considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
7	My manager displays a sense of power and confidence.					
8	My manager emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
9	My manager talks positively about the future.					
10	My manager is excited when he/she talks about what needs to be accomplished.					
11	My manager communicates a clear vision of the future.					
12	My manager is confident that goals will be achieved.					
13	My manager seeks different perspectives when solving problems.					
14	My manager gets me to look at problems from many different angles.					
15	My manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
16	My manager re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.					
17	My manager spends time teaching and coaching me					
18	My manager treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.					
19	My manager knows that I have different needs, abilities and ambitions from others.					
20	My manager helps me develop my strengths.					
21	My manager helps me in exchange for my efforts.					
22	My manager discusses specifically who is responsible to achieve performance goals.					
23	My manager makes clear what reward one can get when performance goals are achieved.					
24	My manager expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.					

25	My manager keeps track of all mistakes.					
26	My manager concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.					
27	My manager directs my attention toward failures to meet standards.					
28	My manager focuses attention on things that didn't work according to the plan.					
29	My manager fails to get involved before problems become serious.					
30	My manager waits for things to go wrong only will take action.					
31	My manager will not change anything if it is still works.					
32	My manager will take action only when problems become serious.					

Section D Affective Commitment

This section provides a series of statements that represent possible perceptions that individual might have about the organization for which they work. Based on your own perceptions about the organization you are currently working for, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement. Based on 5 point scale given below, please tick the appropriate number.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this bank.					
2	I enjoy discussing my bank with outside people.					
3	I really feel as if this bank's problems are of my own.					
4	If I get the opportunity I will not leave my bank for another bank as I am to this one.					
5	I do feel my bank as 'part of the family'.					
6	I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this bank.					

7	This bank has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
8	I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my bank.					

Section E Demographic Profile

The items presented below are for collecting personal/demographic information. Please tick the appropriate answer or fill in the blank line.

1. Your gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Your age: ☐ 25-35 ☐ 35-45 ☐ 45-55 ☐ 55-above
3. Highest Level of Education:
☐ Bachelor Degree ☐ Masters Degree ☐ PhD ☐ Others
4. Your working experience related to the banking industry (number of years):
☐ Less than 4 ☐ 4-7 ☐ 7-10 ☐ More than 10
5. Your position in Branch: ☐ Head of General Banking ☐ Head of Account ☐
☐ Head of Credit ☐ Head Foreign Exchange

Thank you for your cordial participation